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EDWARD W. BURT
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS

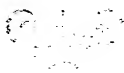
President Massachusetts Retail Shoe Merchants' Association, 1912, 1913, 1915.
Official Organizer National Shoe Retailers' Association.
National Councilor United States Chamber of Commerce, 1913.
Chairman Industrial Bureau, Lynn Chamber of Commerce, 1914.
Honorary Member Eight Retail Shoe Merchants' Associations.
Charter Member Advertising Vigilance Association.
President Lynn Business Men's Association, 1915.
President E. W. Burt & Co., Inc., Shoe Manufacturers, Retailers, Founder,
Grippertown, Massachusetts.
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THE SHOE-CRAFT

ITS ORGANIZATION

BY

EDWARD WILLIARD BURT



BOSTON
THE EVERETT PRESS
1917

2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020, 2021, 2022, 2023, 2024, 2025, 2026, 2027, 2028, 2029, 2030, 2031, 2032, 2033, 2034, 2035, 2036, 2037, 2038, 2039, 2040, 2041, 2042, 2043, 2044, 2045, 2046, 2047, 2048, 2049, 2050, 2051, 2052, 2053, 2054, 2055, 2056, 2057, 2058, 2059, 2060, 2061, 2062, 2063, 2064, 2065, 2066, 2067, 2068, 2069, 2070, 2071, 2072, 2073, 2074, 2075, 2076, 2077, 2078, 2079, 2080, 2081, 2082, 2083, 2084, 2085, 2086, 2087, 2088, 2089, 2090, 2091, 2092, 2093, 2094, 2095, 2096, 2097, 2098, 2099, 2100, 2101, 2102, 2103, 2104, 2105, 2106, 2107, 2108, 2109, 2110, 2111, 2112, 2113, 2114, 2115, 2116, 2117, 2118, 2119, 2120, 2121, 2122, 2123, 2124, 2125, 2126, 2127, 2128, 2129, 2130, 2131, 2132, 2133, 2134, 2135, 2136, 2137, 2138, 2139, 2140, 2141, 2142, 2143, 2144, 2145, 2146, 2147, 2148, 2149, 2150, 2151, 2152, 2153, 2154, 2155, 2156, 2157, 2158, 2159, 2160, 2161, 2162, 2163, 2164, 2165, 2166, 2167, 2168, 2169, 2170, 2171, 2172, 2173, 2174, 2175, 2176, 2177, 2178, 2179, 2180, 2181, 2182, 2183, 2184, 2185, 2186, 2187, 2188, 2189, 2190, 2191, 2192, 2193, 2194, 2195, 2196, 2197, 2198, 2199, 2200, 2201, 2202, 2203, 2204, 2205, 2206, 2207, 2208, 2209, 2210, 2211, 2212, 2213, 2214, 2215, 2216, 2217, 2218, 2219, 2220, 2221, 2222, 2223, 2224, 2225, 2226, 2227, 2228, 2229, 2230, 2231, 2232, 2233, 2234, 2235, 2236, 2237, 2238, 2239, 2240, 2241, 2242, 2243, 2244, 2245, 2246, 2247, 2248, 2249, 2250, 2251, 2252, 2253, 2254, 2255, 2256, 2257, 2258, 2259, 2260, 2261, 2262, 2263, 2264, 2265, 2266, 2267, 2268, 2269, 2270, 2271, 2272, 2273, 2274, 2275, 2276, 2277, 2278, 2279, 2280, 2281, 2282, 2283, 2284, 2285, 2286, 2287, 2288, 2289, 2290, 2291, 2292, 2293, 2294, 2295, 2296, 2297, 2298, 2299, 2300, 2301, 2302, 2303, 2304, 2305, 2306, 2307, 2308, 2309, 2310, 2311, 2312, 2313, 2314, 2315, 2316, 2317, 2318, 2319, 2320, 2321, 2322, 2323, 2324, 2325, 2326, 2327, 2328, 2329, 2330, 2331, 2332, 2333, 2334, 2335, 2336, 2337, 2338, 2339, 2340, 2341, 2342, 2343, 2344, 2345, 2346, 2347, 2348, 2349, 2350, 2351, 2352, 2353, 2354, 2355, 2356, 2357, 2358, 2359, 2360, 2361, 2362, 2363, 2364, 2365, 2366, 2367, 2368, 2369, 2370, 2371, 2372, 2373, 2374, 2375, 2376, 2377, 2378, 2379, 2380, 2381, 2382, 2383, 2384, 2385, 2386, 2387, 2388, 2389, 2390, 2391, 2392, 2393, 2394, 2395, 2396, 2397, 2398, 2399, 2400, 2401, 2402, 2403, 2404, 2405, 2406, 2407, 2408, 2409, 2410, 2411, 2412, 2413, 2414, 2415, 2416, 2417, 2418, 2419, 2420, 2421, 2422, 2423, 2424, 2425, 2426, 2427, 2428, 2429, 2430, 2431, 2432, 2433, 2434, 2435, 2436, 2437, 2438, 2439, 2440, 2441, 2442, 2443, 2444, 2445, 2446, 2447, 2448, 2449, 2450, 2451, 2452, 2453, 2454, 2455, 2456, 2457, 2458, 2459, 2460, 2461, 2462, 2463, 2464, 2465, 2466, 2467, 2468, 2469, 2470, 2471, 2472, 2473, 2474, 2475, 2476, 2477, 2478, 2479, 2480, 2481, 2482, 2483, 2484, 2485, 2486, 2487, 2488, 2489, 2490, 2491, 2492, 2493, 2494, 2495, 2496, 2497, 2498, 2499, 2500, 2501, 2502, 2503, 2504, 2505, 2506, 2507, 2508, 2509, 2510, 2511, 2512, 2513, 2514, 2515, 2516, 2517, 2518, 2519, 2520, 2521, 2522, 2523, 2524, 2525, 2526, 2527, 2528, 2529, 2530, 2531, 2532, 2533, 2534, 2535, 2536, 2537, 2538, 2539, 2540, 2541, 2542, 2543, 2544, 2545, 2546, 2547, 2548, 2549, 2550, 2551, 2552, 2553, 2554, 2555, 2556, 2557, 2558, 2559, 2560, 2561, 2562, 2563, 2564, 2565, 2566, 2567, 2568, 2569, 2570, 2571, 2572, 2573, 2574, 2575, 2576, 2577, 2578, 2579, 2580, 2581, 2582, 2583, 2584, 2585, 2586, 2587, 2588, 2589, 2590, 2591, 2592, 2593, 2594, 2595, 2596, 2597, 2598, 2599, 2600, 2601, 2602, 2603, 2604, 2605, 2606, 2607, 2608, 2609, 2610, 2611, 2612, 2613, 2614, 2615, 2616, 2617, 2618, 2619, 2620, 2621, 2622, 2623, 2624, 2625, 2626, 2627, 2628, 2629, 2630, 2631, 2632, 2633, 2634, 2635, 2636, 2637, 2638, 2639, 2640, 2641, 2642, 2643, 2644, 2645, 2646, 2647, 2648, 2649, 2650, 2651, 2652, 2653, 2654, 2655, 2656, 2657, 2658, 2659, 2660, 2661, 2662, 2663, 2664, 2665, 2666, 2667, 2668, 2669, 2670, 2671, 2672, 2673, 2674, 2675, 2676, 2677, 2678, 2679, 2680, 2681, 26

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THE SHOE-CRAFT

ITS ORGANIZATION

BY

EDWARD WILLIARD BURT



BOSTON

THE EVERETT PRESS

1917

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by

E. W. BURT



FOREWORD

THE TIME HAS COME FOR A NEW BRAND OF CO-OPERATION, A NEW SPIRIT IN THE ENTIRE INDUSTRY,—A BRINGING TOGETHER OF MEN OF SIMILAR WORKS THE BETTER TO KNOW AND LEARN THEIR BUSINESS, TO STANDARDIZE, TO CO-OPERATE, TO SIMPLIFY THE PROBLEMS OF MERCHANDIZING, AND FACILITATE PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION OF SHOES,—TO THE END THAT THE PUBLIC MAY BE THE ULTIMATE GAINER.



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TO THE MAN WHO BELIEVES

big and altruistic movements are critically judged from the viewpoint: "What there in it for me?" What the shoe merchant should have as his guide in association work is something as follows: "I will not condemn Association work : not meeting my expectation unless I personally give some time, thought and diligent effort to help secure results. I will make my co-operation more than a name. Co-operation in Association work means better friendships, a wider acquaintance, broader horizon, newer ideas and better business. I owe it to myself to aid in the accomplishment of Association aims."

It is a very difficult matter for a man to produce specified reasons why people should join an association, because in my experience the impossible-to-answer type of question is raised.

Dr. A. J. Hart, of Cammeyers, New York, says: "What good will it do me? To the man who believes in Association only insofar as it benefits him specifically in dollars and cents, nothing that I will have to say, or can say, can appeal. Whether the dues of an association are \$1.00 or \$10.00 or \$100.00 makes no difference. No money consideration will come back to the owner of a certificate of membership, but far greater returns are possible."



THE PRINCIPLE OF ORGANIZATION

is the basis upon which
and commercial life of our
ished.

inciples of the birth of
Government were founded
of organization. Religion

played a prominent part in the early history of the American Nation, created by the Puritans and Quakers, who organized themselves together for free thinking, free actions and freedom from system of oppression of the Old World.

The early principles of free thought and concerted action so strongly inherited in the commercial and business life of the present generation, have crystalized and brought into existence associations and organizations of the machine workers, manufacturers, merchants and salesmen in all lines of trade and civic life, and it is with the intent and desire to further the purposes and principles of practical organization that this book is written. In recognition of the value to the shoe merchant, which has come through participation in the work of the Massachusetts Retail Shoe Merchants Association, of which I have had the honor of being President, this book is dedicated.

E. W. BURT.



CHAPTER I.

HISTORY OF BOOTS AND SHOES IN EARLY DAYS.

the earliest form of protection for the foot was in the nature of sandals. These men have accurate knowledge of from sculptures and paintings of early Egypt; preserved up in museums, both public and private, in America and abroad. Many of these objects of art carry the history of shoe-making back some three thousand years, even to the time of Thothmes the Third, who ascended the throne of Egypt, (according to Wilkinson) 1,495 years before Christ. The plates show the shoemakers seated upon low stools busily engaged in making the style of sandals then worn in Egypt. One of the workmen is piercing with his awl the leather thongs at the side of the sole through which the straps were passed, to hold the sandal to the foot. His fellow workman is equally busy sewing a shoe and tightening the thong with his teeth, an early method of working. Above their heads is a row of sandals displayed so as to attract customers, and at their feet lie several odd tools somewhat resembling those in use today.

The temperature of the climate made a covered shoe unnecessary, hence sandals, in all their varied forms, were used. Those worn by the upper classes, and particularly those worn by women, were usually pointed and curved upward at the toe, like our modern skates. Various materials were used; some were made of woven palm leaves and papyrus stalks; some of leather, cloth-lined and painted with the figure of a captive. The kind worn by the poorer classes was made of flat slices of palm leaves lapping over each other in the centre to form the sole, while a band of twisted leaves strengthened the edge, and a thong of strong

fibres was fastened to each side of the instep, connecting with another passing over the top of the foot, which was secured to the sole between the great and second toes. This held the sandal firmly and yet allowed it to be cast off easily. The Hebrew word *Naal* means sandal, although always translated shoe in our Old Testament.

A style of close-laced shoe is shown in the British Museum. It covers the foot completely and has a thong or two over the instep for drawing it tightly over the foot. The sole and upper leather are all in one piece, sewed up the back and down the front of the foot.

The ancient bas-reliefs at Persepolis and near Babylon give us some examples of boots and shoes of the Persian kings and their attendants, in the days of Xerxes and Darius.

Three styles are worthy of mention. First a half-boot reaching above the ankle worn only by the attendant in charge of a chariot is shown on a bas-relief now in the British Museum, brought from Persepolis. Another style shows a half-boot reaching to the ankle and secured by a band tied in front in a knot, the two ends hanging beneath it. This shoe was generally worn by soldiers of the upper classes. Another style shows a foot covering, between a shoe and a sandal, having the lacings broader than usual and fastened by buttons along the top of the foot.

High boots reaching nearly to the knee, of the same shape and appearance as those worn by the modern Cosacks, are not uncommon upon these sculptures. Vegetable sandals, termed Baxa were worn by the lower classes as a symbol of their humility. These sandals were often decorated with ornaments making them quite expensive.

The changing ideas of the lower classes in sandals is remarkable. One style is shown of skin turned over the foot and secured by thongs passing through the sides and over the toe, crossing each other over the instep and secured around the ankle. Another style leaves the toes entirely uncovered. This sandal was made of pliable leather

secured around the ankle by a tie, while a thong ornamented by a stud, passed over the instep and between the great and second toe secured to the sole.

Among the Hebrews red seems to have been a favorite color for shoes. The Roman Senators wore shoes of a black color with a crescent of gold or silver on the top of the foot. The Emperor Aurelian allowed only the women to wear shoes colored yellow, white or green. The Roman soldiers when about to attack a fort or on rough marches wore sandals with long spikes in the sole, and at other times the soles were covered with heavy nails. The Roman shoes had various names, designating the position in society of the wearer. Those worn by the lower classes were called *Solea*, *Crepida* and *Pero*. The *caliga* was worn by soldiers and the *cothurnus* by hunters and horsemen, as well as by nobles. Boots worn by Emperors were often richly decorated with real gems, cameos and gold trimmings. The Grecian ladies wore shoes lined with the fur of animals whose claws hung down from the top. These boots were called *ocrea*.

Early examples in England show a foot covering made of the hide of some animal, secured by a leather thong. This made a close warm shoe, adapted to the climate. As early as the Tenth Century high shoes were worn which reached nearly to the middle of the legs and were fastened by lacing in the front. The high shoes of the ancients laced close down to the toes, but later to the instep only. These were made of leather fastened with a thong passing through a fold upon the upper part of the leather, encompassing the heel and tied upon the instep. Little variety is shown in this style of shoe. Wooden shoes are mentioned by Strutt as being worn by the nobility at this period. These wooden shoes were so called because the soles were made of wood while leather was used in the upper. Shoes found in the tomb of Bernard, King of Italy, grandson of Charlemagne, are described as having soles of wood and upper parts of red leather, laced together with thongs.

The Normans wore leather boots and shoes plain in form, fitting close to the foot, but wide at the ankle. An ornament consisting of a studded band surrounded the upper part. These boots were not used by any particular classes of people. A new idea which was quickly adopted consisted of lengthening the toes of shoes and bringing them forward to a point in the form of a scorpion's tail. These shoes were called *Pigaciae* and were worn by all classes; but the clergy were strongly against this fad and forbade wearing by members of religious orders. The kings wore very elaborate footwear, those of Henry II being of green color with gold bands. Henry VI was buried in a pair of shoes whose upper part was of cloth of gold embroidered with pearls, the sole being of cork covered with the same cloth. These shoes reached to the ankle, and were fastened with a little button. The effigy of Henry III in Westminster Abby shows the splendor of his boots, which are crossed all over with bands of gold forming diamond shaped spaces, each of which is filled with the figure of a lion, the royal emblem of England. The reign of Edward III, was notable for the varied and luxurious costumes and for the elaborate shoes. The greatest variety of patterns and the richest contrasts of color were used by the makers.

Shoes worn during the Fourteenth Century had toes with long points turning inward or outward as desired. The points became extremely long in the reign of Richard II, so that walking was most difficult. Then fashion turned suddenly and the toes became broad. At times fashions became so extreme that laws were passed restraining them. Edward IV passed a law that any shoemaker who made boots or shoes with toes exceeding two inches in length should pay twenty shillings. This had the effect of widening the toes even to the width of a good twelve inches which was finally reduced in the reign of Queen Mary to six inches in width. In the reign of Edward VI a shoe was worn with a pointed toe, made of velvet throughout with

a series of long slashes. During the year 1588, the fashionable wore fancy slippers made of velvet, some white, some green and others yellow. Some Spanish slippers of this date were made of leather stitched with silk and embroidered with gold and silver. In the reign of Charles I, boots were made of soft, pliable buff-colored Spanish leather. They were very large and wide at the top, causing the wearer to stride when walking. The tops were capable of being turned over beneath the knee.

At the time of the revolution of 1689 and the reign of William III, the high jack-boot came into use and the high quartered, high-heeled and buckled shoe. Over the instep was a large piece of leather, through which the spur was attached. These boots were worn by the English Cavalry. During the reign of George III shoes became lower in the quarters, and the heel more graceful in appearance, with both large and small buckles for ornamentation.

About 1790 a change occurred in women's shoes and they were made lower in the heel, more like a slipper. Buckles were worn until about 1700 when they were discarded and shoe-strings took their place.

The shoes worn in Ireland furnish interesting examples of shoe evolution. The brogue or shoe of the peasants was made at first of untanned hide and later of tanned leather, without linings, similar to the brogans of the present day. The brogue was made two ways, single, with sole and upper only, and double, which had a welt between the sole and upper, making it much stronger. In later years an inner-sole was used more like the welt shoes of today. In making the brogue, the uppers and soles were held together by thongs, instead of hemp threads, and no lasts were used. In constructing this shoe the upper leather and side were sewed together and then turned inside out, and the upper rubbed down by an iron and the shoe placed before a fire to dry. The heel was made of shavings cemented together with paste and dried under the sun, cut the required size and sewed to the shoe and covered with

a thin layer of leather driven on by pegs. The brogue was rubbed over with tallow, similar to the present method of treeing boots. The brogue was made a number of sizes too large for the foot and the space was filled up with hay or straw. These brogues being heavy, were most suitable for field labor.

When the manufacture of boots and shoes began as a means of livelihood it is almost impossible to say, but according to Rasseline, shoemaker's shops existed in Egypt at a very early period. In the olden days the bootmaker made all the shoe from start to finish, cutting the paper pattern, linings of cloth, outsides of leather, stitching the upper entirely by hand with the aid of awl and needle, and then lasting the boot and sewing on the sole, heel, and all other parts. If a workman made a pair of boots in a day he did well.

The great change in the making of boots and shoes came with the invention of the learned Dr. Turnbull of a new process of tanning leather for tops of boots and shoes. A description of his method has been given by J. Sparkes Hall in his interesting "Book of the Feet."

SKINS AND THEIR TANNAGE.

The skin of animals is composed of two parts, the corium and the cuticle. The former is the true skin, being a tissue of delicate fibres crossing each other in all directions thickly interwoven towards the surface. This tissue has a great number of conical channels the ends of which terminate at the external surface of the skin. These channels, placed obliquely contain nerves. The cuticle or exterior covering, is an insensible membrane, devoid of blood-vessels.

The process of tanning consists in the combination of the gelatinous substance of which the skin is composed, and the tannic acid, this having a strong chemical affinity and the skin is converted into leather when the acid is applied to the gelatinous fibre. The length of time required to tan

leather arises from the difficulty in bringing the acid into contact with the gelatinous tissue and many methods have been tried to shorten the process. In preparing skins for the tan pit, they are steeped for some time in a solution of lime to remove the hair. This lime has the effect of removing a portion of the gelatinous substance also, which prevents it from rapidly combining with the tannic acid, and the pores of the skin are so filled with lime that the tanning process is not as rapid as it otherwise would be. The method of using lime gave way to Dr. Turnbull's discovery of sugar and sawdust. The action of sugar and pyroxalic is so quick that the skins rapidly absorb the tannic acid,—this method produces much better results.

To Sequin, a French chemist, belongs the discovery of a property in nutgalls of combining with the albumen and gelatine of skins. Tannier exists in the bark of nearly all perennial trees and especially that part of the bark next to the fibre. The bark, leaves, and fruit of the oak tree contain a larger amount of tannier than any other tree in America and are usually gathered during the months of May and July. The Spanish Oaks are the most valuable and useful for tanning purposes.

The secret of tanning lies in the removal of the hair from the skin without injury and also rendering the skin insoluble in water and yet flexible.

EARLY AMERICAN FOOTWEAR.

The Indian Moccasin is the foot covering worn by the aborigines of America and it is the most practical and comfortable footwear made for man. The moccasin is usually made of deer skin, tanned and smoked over a camp fire by the Indians. Moccasins are usually made in two pieces which come below the ankle bone, and sometimes side pieces are put in with lacings in the front. In measuring a foot for the length, the Indian will break off a stick and measure the foot from toe to heel, which is all the measurement he requires to give the exact size.

Many moccasins are decorated with bird heads, feathers, beads and porcupine quills, dyed with juices and colors. Moccasins have no extra sole attached. For tramping in the woods, no shoes are more comfortable or more silent than the moccasin.

The early settlers and colonists were obliged to make their own shoes from leather imported from England, but as the population increased, tanneries were established in some of the large towns. The fashion before the Revolution did not allow a hired man or woman to wear boots or shoes as fine as calf-skin, but they wore boots made of coarse neat's leather.

The English Colonists wore shoes or pumps with silver buckles of various sizes, knee breeches and silk stockings. The Hessian Boot was introduced into the states about the year 1800. These boots were made with a seam in the back and were worn over pantaloons fastened around the ankle with ribbons.

The introduction of modern machinery increased the output of shoes and gave employment to thousands of men and women. There are over thirteen hundred shoe manufacturers in the United States today with factory wage scales from \$5 a week to \$75.00 a week. The major part of the work is done on modern machines. Large factories turn out from 5,000 to 75,000 pair a day on lasts of all shapes and styles. Leather and materials of the most delicate fabrics are used and prices range from \$1.00 up to \$25.00 or more per pair.

The factories of today are systematized to produce the greatest number of pairs at the smallest cost. Many manufacturers operate their factories on a margin of a few cents per pair profit, according to the grades and manner of distribution.

The factory system has made possible, the organization of the shoe worker, the shoe manufacturer and finally the shoe merchant and the salesmen in his employ—each in the division in which he works and all dedicated to the advancement of service to the public.



CHAPTER II.

MACHINERY AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF INDUSTRIES.

direct influence of machinery on skilled labor is felt in two ways: first, by the displacement of hand labor; and second, by the increase in production and employment of machine labor. In considering the economic influence of machinery, we must deal with labor abstractly. Business men of today acknowledge, without a question of doubt, the permanent and lasting effects of the application of machinery to industrial development. The advantages, however, are not in some cases consistent with the temporary displacement of a certain amount of labor. From practical experiences and study of existing conditions, accurate information has been secured, showing the result of the introduction of certain machines which have brought about the so-called "displacement of labor," in cases where the perfection of machinery has produced faster than the consumption.

In the manufacture of agricultural implements new machinery has, in some instances, displaced fully fifty per cent. of the manual labor formerly employed. It is found that in a large agricultural implement factory 600 laborers produce as much as did 2,145 laborers before the introduction of the present machinery. In a gun factory one man used to make the pieces of one gun in a day, and now three men make the parts of 150 guns in a day. In the manufacture of small arms, where one man made the stock for one gun in ten hours three men, by the use of power and machinery, can turn out and fit from 125 to 150 stocks in the same amount of time. Here is a displacement of forty-four men in one operation.

The manufacture of boots and shoes shows some remarkable facts in connection with the displacement of hand labor. One of the largest factories in Massachusetts employs 5,000 hands making a number of boots and shoes that 20,000 workmen could not have produced by old time methods in the same time.

In our Lynn factory one workman on a lasting machine can last 150 pairs of women's shoes in eight hours, against 15 pairs by the hand method. The Goodyear welting machine can sew 250 pairs of Goodyear welt shoes in one day, against 10 pairs by hand. In other words, it takes one man 25 days to do the same work that a machine will do in one day. The McKay sewing machine shows another striking example, for it can sew 300 pairs of shoes in one day, while a man can sew only 10 pairs.

Ordinarily the greatest efficiency is shown in the production of the medium grade shoes. The following data show comparisons between hand and machine work in the making of shoe-uppers, and the results given are considered as nearly correct as it is possible to make them. The first part taken is in sewing back seams of quarters by machines which have taken the place of the hand awl, needle, thimble, and clamp. On 100 pairs of women's kid button shoes the work was accomplished in 50 minutes with a machine, against 33 hours and 20 minutes with the hand method, or but one-fortieth of the time required by hand; while in a man's medium grade shoe it was done in one hour by machine, against twenty-five hours by hand method, a ratio of about 25 to 1 in favor of the machine.

In making buttonholes in women's kid shoes it required 175 hours to do a certain amount of work by hand, against 5 hours by a machine, a ratio of 35 to 1. In the work of sewing vamps to quarters great efficiency is shown. In this case it requires only 2 hours and 48 seconds to do a certain amount of work on the machine, against 80 hours by hand, a ratio of 40 to 1. The operation of cutting inner soles and outer soles varies somewhat. The greatest contrast in this operation is shown in the case of women's kid turned shoes

in which, by the aid of the stripping knife, sole-cutting machine, and dies, the work was accomplished in 1.6 minutes against 5 hours under the hand method, a ratio of 188 to 1 in favor of the machine.

So far as the qualities of machine and hand-made shoes are concerned, the machine-made shoes of the present day are practically as good and often better than the hand-made shoes of thirty years ago, while for style and workmanship they are far superior to the hand-made product being more uniform in appearance and of better style.

By comparing the above figures it is seen that machinery in the manufacture of boots and shoes has displaced employees in the proportion of 6 to 1, while the cost of production has been reduced at least one-half. In consequence of the above results, many laborers have condemned the machine, saying that it displaces labor. They claim that it exhausts the physical powers of the worker and is detrimental to health and morals, degrading man and transforming him into a machine himself, instead of increasing his physical efficiency, as well as lowering his average level of wages, for the benefit of the employers only.

The Bureau of Labor of New York in 1894 echoed the complaints of the workman who said machinery displaced labor by 15 per cent. among carpenters, 20 per cent. among cutters, 30 per cent. among shirtmakers, and so on, but their figures were based on the number of laborers employed just before and after the invention of machines, taking no account of the great increase of labor that has resulted from the decline in price and the increased demand for the product, due to inventions of new machinery.

A study of political economy clearly shows that machinery has not displaced labor. The study of statistics shows that the total number of persons engaged in manufacturing, far from having diminished, has steadily increased year by year, and the total wages paid to laborers have advanced, and that the decline in prices of manufactured goods is of great advantage to the consumers, including the workmen themselves. These facts are indis-

putable. The great benefits of production by machinery can be made profitable only by extensive public use. If a community could purchase but 15 pairs of shoes a year, it would be much more profitable to have the shoes made by hand. True economy in manufacturing lies in making a hundred thousand pairs. It consists not in making the old product as a less expense, and with less labor, but in making a much larger product with the same labor.

Compare the greatest countries of the world, the United States and Great Britain, which are the largest users of machinery, with countries where machines are not used. The superiority is at once apparent, not only because of the increased production, but because of the great army of workers who have obtained employment through the marvellous inventions which have created new industries, such as photography, electricity, telegraphy, automobiles, and the typewriter, giving much more work and employment than they have taken away. Social evolution must go on. Industry and commercial prosperity are inseparable from machinery and large factories, which make low-cost production possible, and the low price of the product, which the consumer seeks first of all, is one of the chief aims and objects of economic civilization.

The wage-earners and economists must look to concentration and machinery to assure a future for this country. The machine has infinite force and great rapidity of movement as well as a true uniformity and precision which the hand and eye can never attain. For the production of low-priced articles in great quantities and with rapidity it has great advantages and a pronounced superiority. The ablest manufacturers consider the development of machinery and the establishing of large factories as the legitimate consequences of free competition to produce volume cheaply, thus promoting the forward march of civilization. Necessity of repeated changes is a sure proof of the rapidity of progress, and the individual who knows how to provide himself with the best tools and has learned the art of using them has the greatest chance of success.

The machine is of great advantage to the workmen who sell their labor, because the rate of salary and wages has been raised, which enables them to purchase more with the same amount of money. The workman, instead of bringing his muscles into play, allows the machine to use its great and never-tiring strength to do the work, while he becomes an inspector and operator only. It must be considered a blessing that the energy of the laborer is not exhausted in his day's work, and that his mind is free to think. Although the machine may develop his hands and muscles and not tend to develop the mind, it does not involve deterioration of the general mental ability. While it is true that in some cases a laborer may toil at his machine, day in and day out, for perhaps a large number of years, to find that his ambition and energy have gone and he becomes, as it were, a part of a machine, a controlling power that makes it go, so that he thinks only of doing mechanically so much work each day, and when night comes drags himself home worn out, only to begin his work again on the following day, yet the fact remains that on the whole machines have proven of great benefit to the health of the worker. For one thing, as more room is required the ceilings of factories have become higher and hygienic conditions have been improved, while more light is required to operate the machines, which means larger windows and more sunlight.

The great influence of machinery in the history of man is in giving steady employment, and that is the very ethical problem of our existence. The most harmful condition which can prevail is a lack of knowledge needed to help a man to earn a living. To be able to do one's work efficiently is as important in life as ethics and practical religion. Every man should seek to broaden all of his faculties, striving to the best of his ability to attain perfection in his work and to develop his love of beauty, art, science, and all that ennoble life; and this can be largely accomplished by the use of inventions which are a result of human ingenuity and brains.

The industrial evolution of the United States and the development of the factory system began about the end of the Colonial period and at the beginning of Constitutional Government, in the year 1789.

At first it was not easy to introduce a new invention for the manufacture of commodities. The old-time methods which had been in use for years were slow to be discarded. Although the manufacturer himself could see the great possibilities of new and improved machinery, the workman feared its introduction into the workshop, believing that it meant the loss of labor, and finally his position.

In the early history of the Colonies the slow hand-methods of spinning were in use until about the year 1638, when a little band of settlers came from Yorkshire, England, settling in the town of Rowly, Massachusetts. Here, after much labor and difficulty, they built and operated the first woolen mill, which was the foundation of the woolen industries in America. At that time there was a heavy export-duty from England of three shillings and four pence on every yard of woolen broadcloth, but this proved of benefit to the Colonies, as it only helped to encourage the raising of sheep for wool, which England had also forbidden to be exported.

In 1656 the Massachusetts General Court ordered the people of the towns to turn their attention to weaving and spinning, and every effort was made to increase and stimulate the woolen industry and home manufacturing. Woolen factories were started in different places, so that by the time of the adoption of the Constitution large quantities of cloth were being manufactured. One factory in Connecticut produced some 5,000 yards of cloth in the year 1789, some of which sold as high as \$5 a yard. It is said that General Washington visited this factory and was much interested in the work, expressing approval of the quality of the goods, even so far as to order a suit made of cloth produced in that factory.

The three states of Maryland, Pennsylvania and Virginia made great efforts to develop and build up textile industries,

passing laws to encourage the manufacture of woollens, with such good results that near the close of the seventeenth century the imports and exports of the states of Virginia and Maryland were greater than those of all the other Colonies combined. New Jersey came in for a share of the woollen manufactured, but not as early as the other States. The cotton-spinning and weaving industries kept pace with the making of woollen cloths. Cotton was found to be an indigenous plant in the Southern Colonies, so Nature gave us the chance for the utilization of a fibre which is the basis of the great cotton industry, and its use was early recognized by the colonists. Cotton was first planted in this country about the year 1621. The great difficulty which prevented the growth of the cotton industry as rapidly as the woollen industry was the attitude of England. In the years before 1760 cotton cloth in England was made by hand machinery, and this method was employed by the colonists until about the year 1770. The invention and perfection of spinning and weaving machines in England at once revolutionized the textile industry. Great care was taken that no machines should reach America, but the Colonists, seeing the great strides that had been made in England on account of these inventions, determined to secure some machines for themselves.

The Legislature of Massachusetts encouraged machinery for carding and weaving by giving two men two hundred pounds sterling to enable them to build machines to card and spin sheeps wool as well as cotton wool.

These machines, which included the Arkwright devices, were built, and in all probability were the first used in this country.

The first factory which could be called a textile factory was built at Beverly, Massachusetts, in 1873, and the legislature aided the industry by loans of money. But the enterprise did not prove a success and it was closed shortly after starting. To the State of Rhode Island belongs the credit of operating the first factory in which perfected machinery,

patterned after the English designs, were used. This factory was built by Samuel Slater in 1790. Carroll D. Wright, LL.D., in his interesting book on Industrial Evolution of the United States, gives the story of Slater's trials and hardships in introducing his ideas into the United States.

"At the age of fourteen he became an apprentice to a Mr. Strutt, a manufacture of cotton machinery in England, and Slater had every opportunity to master the details of the construction of cotton machinery then used in England. Near the close of his term he happened to see a notice in an American newspaper that efforts were being made to secure cotton machinery in the United States, and that large prices were offered for machines. Slater decided to visit America, and he perfected his knowledge so that he could construct machinery from memory and thus bring over in his head what he could not take in plans or models. Landing in America in 1790, he made arrangements with parties at Pawtucket for constructing his machines, with three cards drawing and roving, together with seventy-two spindles, which were the first of the kind ever operated in America."

In 1794 Eli Whitney invented a machine for separating the seeds from cotton fibres. This machine was called the cotton gin. This was the means of development of cotton-raising in the South, which took great strides at once, aided by the success of the power loom. Factories began to spring up along the streams of New England, and also of the Middle States. In 1831 there were 801 cotton factories in the whole country; in 1840 there were 1,240; and in 1860 there were 2,109. The capital invested in the cotton industry was \$40,612,984 in 1831, while in 1860 it had increased to over \$98,000,000. The total value of the products of American industries had reached \$1,885,861,676 in 1860. Of this, \$115,681,774 was in all kinds of cotton goods, and the total value of boots and shoes produced was about \$91,000,000.

During these years of rapid growth of industries the American men of brains were producing inventions by the

hundreds. New methods of reducing the cost and shortening the time of manufacturing were constantly being introduced and used in various factories with success. In 1857 there were 2,900 patents issued; in the next year 3,710; and in 1860 the number amounted to 4,819. These patents covered improvements and new devices for producing cloth, boots and shoes, air heating stoves, musical instruments, sewing machines, firearms, printing presses, and hundreds of others. There were over 1,000,000 patents issued up to the year 1916.

The manufacture of iron and steel became of much importance after the year 1860, there being 652 factories at that time engaged in making pig and blooms and rolled steel. The capital increased from 48 millions to 414 millions in 1890. The formation of larger factories and better methods of manufacture had the result of reducing the cost of manufacturing, and consequently of increasing production. The value of products increased from 207 millions in 1870 to nearly 300 millions in 1880—about 45 per cent. Bessemer steel was first made in the United States in 1867, and so rapid was the growth of the steel industry that the production in 1890 out-distanced that of Great Britain by 1,300,000 tons. The principal cause of the rapid growth of iron manufacture was the large numbers of railroads that were built by the United States. Another reason has been the demand for the wire nail, which was invented in the year 1884. So great had been this demand that the production in 1890 was eight million kegs.

Among other inventions of much importance in the expansion of business should be mentioned the typewriter of the year 1873. The development of the printing industry also has been very rapid. In 1860 about 1,600 establishments were in existence which increased to 16,000 in 1890. These and other industries show the great energy and enterprise of the people of the United States and the ambition to meet the home demand and to supply the markets of the world.

I am indebted to Earl G. Manning for the chart herewith (copyrighted by him) illustrating an economic division of yearly income by amount and by percentage of families averaging two adults and two children.

YEARLY INCOME.	FOOD.	RENT.	CLOTHES.	OPERATING EXPENSES.	ADVANCEMENT.	INSURANCE & SAVINGS.
\$1000 ..	\$300 30 %	\$200 20 %	\$100 10 %	\$150 15 %	\$100 10 %	\$150 15 %
1200 ..	330 27.5%	300 25 %	150 12.5%	150 11.5%	100 8.3%	170 14.2%
1500 ..	375 25 %	300 20 %	150 10 %	225 15 %	200 13.3%	250 16.7%
1800 ..	400 22.2%	400 22.2%	200 11.1%	270 15 %	240 13.4%	290 16.1%
2000 ..	450 22.5%	400 20 %	250 12.5%	350 17.5%	250 12.5%	300 15 %
2500 ..	500 20 %	400 16 %	250 10 %	450 18 %	450 18 %	450 18 %
3000 ..	550 18.3%	500 16.7%	325 10.8%	550 18.3%	450 15 %	625 20.8%
3500 ..	650 16.9%	575 16.4%	475 13.6%	575 16.4%	500 14.3%	725 20.7%
4000 ..	675 16.9%	600 15 %	500 12.5%	625 15.6%	600 15 %	1000 25 %



CHAPTER III.

CAPITAL AND THE WAGE QUESTION.

The contrast between great wealth and poverty of recent years leads one to believe that the rich are growing richer, and the poor, poorer. In large cities the gulf between the capitalist and the laborer increases with each advance of capital as compared with those of labor. Differences in accumulated wealth of individual people prove nothing about the ratio of income. There will always be a class of people who will be at the zero point in the matter of accumulated wealth. Some men gamble, speculate, and drink, spending their income as fast as made; others are so shiftless and indifferent, that they refuse to work so long as they have money in their pockets; while others save and economize, laying up their wealth and investing it in paying enterprises.

If all the wealth in the country were evenly divided to-day, it would be but a short time before some men would have nothing and others would have increased their holdings. The more capital there is in the community, the greater the differences are sure to be. A difference in income does not effect the results. A man who has saved nothing may have an income larger than a man who has saved hundreds of dollars. The wealth of different classes in a community is measured by their expenditure.

Results show that the proportion of enjoyment, comforts, and wealth which goes to labor is becoming larger in the same proportion as that which accrues to capital. An increased number of workmen means increased competition for employment, forcing it gradually downwards; so in-

creased accumulation of capital means increased competition and demand for the services of the laborer, forcing the income of the capitalist downward and that of the laborer upward.

Adam Smith observes: "It is not the actual greatness of natural wealth, but its continued increase, which occasions a rise in the wages of labor." It is not, accordingly, the countries of greatest wealth, but the most thriving—those which are accumulating wealth fastest—where wages of labor are highest. The more circulating capital there is engaged in a trade, the higher *ceteris paribus* wages will be. Compare the conditions of wages in old and in new countries. The former have large amounts of capital, while the latter settled by the same kind of men, have had comparatively smaller amounts of capital until recent years. According to the wage-fund theory, wages should be higher in the old countries and low in the new, but facts show that it is the new country, with quickly turning capital, that pays the highest wages. The only reason for this seems to be in the superior utilization of the capital by the new country where business is active and profits are large, just as the concern that turns its capital over the greatest number of times in a year makes the most profit. Little of the capital is tied up in merchandise upon which interest must be paid out with no returns, and discounts are secured. The point is illustrated by a commercial crisis. Before the panic there is a large amount of unused products to be disposed of. Everything looks favorable for prosperity to the workman and high wages, but the great amount of these commodities is an obstacle to their utilization. Manufacturers are afraid to continue their production, the demand for labor is lessened, and wages fall; but when the stock of goods is diminished, the demand causes a renewal of business, and the laborer gains employment and a share in the product. He receives large payments and saves some of it until the next period of production has advanced so far that goods produced during

that period are at his disposal. He can then get his real wages out of current products.

Hence it is seen that industry is not always limited by invested capital. If economists say that wages are limited by capital and will go as high as the amount of accumulations will permit, the results of modern industry do not show this to be the case. Many modern teachers of economics state that wages are kept up by the competition of a number of individual capitalists, which reduces profits to a minimum, compelling them to give the laborer as large a share of his products as is possible in industrial enterprises. The activity of accumulated capital is such that the laborer secures to a large extent the benefits of modern improvements, and the manufacturer assumes the risk and must content himself with an uncertain margin of profit.

The cost of labor to the manufacturer is measured by piece work, and the return or value for his labor which the laborer receives is measured by the hours that he can work by the day or year and by his own personal skill and ability. It does not always follow that the employer will hire his help by the piece or that the laborer will prefer to be paid by the day. This usually depends upon the kind of employment. Time work usually prevails in agriculture, in personal services, in the higher grades of mechanical work, and often in certain departments of shoe factories. In shoe-making in large factories all foremen are employed by the day or week, their time being devoted to superintending the work of others. Very often in the stitching of shoes, where several small parts are done by one person, time work proves of the greatest advantage to both the laborer and the employer. Many cutters on high-grade leather are employed on time work. When business is above normal, the employer usually prefers to hire the laborer on time work, because less wages will be earned than by piece work. When there is little competition, the employer is usually inclined to get the most that is possible out of the laborer,

and accordingly pays him such low wages that he is able to buy only the bare necessities of life. This was one of the fundamental causes of the combinations of workmen into unions.

An illustration of piece work and of time work may be seen in a certain shoe factory where a workman runs a machine for stitching shoes. The piece price on every pair of shoes stitched is $2\frac{1}{2}$ c. a pair, but the workman may be hired at a weekly salary of \$20 or \$25 throughout the year. When business is active the workman stitches 200 pairs of shoes a day which would enable him to earn about \$50 a week on piece work, whereas he receives only \$25 a week on time work. But on the other hand, when business is quiet the workman stitches 100 pairs a day which would enable him to earn only \$15 a week on piece work.

These conditions show that the piece price is at times advantageous to the workman and at other times to the employer. In lines of business in which slack times are rare piece work is the best for the workman, whereas if quiet seasons are to occur, time work is the more desirable. Under the system of time work the workman has no incentive to work rapidly and the foreman's energy is devoted to keeping the work up to the capacity of the factory. On the piece-work system, where the workman is paid by the pound, or yard, or, in the case of shoes, by the number of pairs of heels attached, or soles laid, or edges trimmed, or whatever it may be, he has a greater incentive to work, as the more goods he turns out the more wages he can earn. Therein lies the danger of injuring the workmanship of the product, and the foreman has to insist upon quality, not quantity. In textile weaving, where the grades of work are simple, the piece system is used. In making machinery of all kinds, where accuracy is required up to the thousandth part of an inch, the workman must be given every incentive to do the work to the best of his ability, and time work is used.

The efficiency of laborers varies greatly in different countries. F. A. Walker, in his book, "Political Economy," says that in comparing the cost of constructing railroads in India and in England it was found that the Indian laborer received but 4½d. to 6d. a day and the English laborer received 3s. to 3s. 6d. a day, while the sub-contracts in two countries are never let at the same prices. The English cotton spinner is paid as many shillings as the East India spinner gets pence, yet the cotton cloth of English undersells that of India in Indian markets. Comparing England and Russia it is found that a weaver in the former country tends from two to three times as many looms as in the latter, the English looms moving, moreover, at a higher rate of speed. It has been shown that the working capacity of the Englishman is about equal to that of three Frenchmen, but none of them averages so high as the American in respect to strength, intelligence, or ability to use machinery.

The reasons why some countries maintain a higher wage-rate than others are not unlike the causes by which some men in the same country maintain a higher wage-rate than others. China is a very inferior country compared with America, because of the absence of agricultural machinery, railroads, and modern improvements. There they rely almost exclusively on human labor, and population is packed in cities and along canals and rivers, while large tracts of country which, with means of transportation, would be populated with farms, are left in solitude and desolation. Hence the earnings are lower and the enjoyments less than in America. Yet with the Chinese nothing is wasted in human consumption. Their labor is directly bestowed on the production of food and drink and less on machinery and buildings, and a wage very much lower produces a degree of comfort only a little lower than is known in Europe or America. In other words, the difference in comfort is far less than the difference in the money used in paying the wages.

What is the definition of the word "labor," or the "means of subsistence?" Not all efforts are put forth directly for the means of subsistence. Two men may be fishing. One sportsman is catching fish for his own repast, and as food is a means of sustaining life, he is putting forth his efforts directly to obtain means of subsistence. Yet this is not labor, but merely sport or play. On the other hand, in a boat is a man who is fishing for business, who does not intend to eat the fish he catches, but to sell it. To him the act of fishing is labor. Hence it can be seen that effort put forth to obtain means of subsistence is not always labor, and labor is not always effort put forth to obtain means of subsistence. It is not always necessary to sell one's service or products to make effort labor. A farmer labors when he works to build a barn or a stone wall, which he expects never to sell. Labor must have a motive of necessity, and is usually combined with physical exertion, but a college man who plays football does not labor, though he combines great physical strength and exertion with the hope of winning a victory. A burglar who breaks into a house to steal may exert much strength with the hope of gain, but he does not labor, for crime cannot involve toil as labor; but when the burglar goes to prison, though he works without hope of gain, that is labor. Will, in his "Political Economy," leaves the definition of the word labor obscure. He says that it is either bodily or mental, muscular or nervous, and that it is necessary to include in the idea not only the exertion itself but all feelings of a disagreeable kind, as well as all bodily inconveniences resulting from the employment of one's muscles in a particular occupation. He does not state whether a woodchopper labors if his chopping is a pleasure, and whether playing is laboring. McCulloch defines labor "as any sort of operation, whether performed by man, the lower animals, or machines, that tends to bring about the desired results," but this confounds men with machines. The best way to define the meaning of the word "labor" is

to look at the end of the operation. Labor is human action of which the end is some good external to itself. Whenever the action in itself gives reward to the agent, it is not labor, as with recreation, hunting, eating, and football. Conversely, when the reward is not in the action itself, this is labor, as in tilling the land. The best way to classify labor is according to the object, purpose, or end of a particular operation. Three divisions can be made: First, industrial, or labor performed on agriculture, manufacture, and commerce; second, public, or labor bestowed on civil and military service in all its forms; third, ministerial, or labor spent by the clergy, teachers, the legal profession, musicians, actors and lawyers.

Labor may be employed to destroy as well as produce. In tearing down a building for the erection of a new one labor is employed for destruction. The word labor often has the meaning of "servile effort." Effort that is put forth for the intrinsic pleasure of the effort, such as art, science, sport, crime, or religion cannot be classed as labor. But work put forth by the convict or laborer through constraint or necessity is labor. The economic reason why labor cannot in most cases consist of work which it is a pleasure to perform is because most tasks required to be performed for the support of man are not considered a pleasure; and further, because those who perform the labor cannot get the pleasure which labor is designed to yield, as with a miner who digs gems for other people's pleasure; and lastly, if all labor were a pleasure in itself, labor capacity would waste itself on the first labor that offered, whereas labor power must be economized and saved for that kind of work which social demand requires. This can be determined only by the willingness of those who are in need to pay for the effort expended. Hence the economic use of labor-power requires that all labor performed shall be paid for, because it is needed.

The ultimate economic necessity that labor shall be irksome arises in the necessity of economizing human effort. For with nearly all the people in the world working during their waking hours, with all economic laws making for equality in distribution of consumable commodities, and with all human effort economized by being expended only where it is paid for, there is still none too large a supply of commodities in the world. It does not always follow that necessity for labor means that the strong shall rule over the weak, for nature has ordained that mankind shall live by rendering mutual service to each other, including good as well as painful service. Loathsome and contagious diseases must be treated at the risk of one's life. The dead must be buried, the sick, insane, and paupers cared for. To perform these tasks, industry and labor must be organized and divided so that individuals can continue in one line until the purpose of society is accomplished.

The same particle of iron cannot at the same time be a part of the driving wheel and a tube in the boiler. If transferred from one place to the other, a wheel breaks or the boiler bursts. So in labor. A man cannot at the same time be a shoemaker, school teacher, doctor and lawyer. But while the organization of industry requires him to do one thing in order to be productive to society, his mind requires that he shall find pleasure in changing from one thing to another. Hence a man divides his time into business hours and hours of leisure and pleasure. The sale of our time to others, who become entitled to a claim upon acts which would be unwelcome or disagreeable if we did not receive pay for them, is what is generally understood by labor. Labor, then, is the exchange for the means of subsistence which a man or woman makes in his or her effort.

Low-grade labor is cheap in some employments but very high in others. Where work requires physical strength only, the man who receives low wages per day is so much below the standard that his labor is costly per unit of product. In

work where mental ability and brains are required, the inefficiency of so-called cheap labor is even more apparent. The man of brains, to do his work properly, must have the proper kind of food, shelter, and travel, to keep his mind clear and brain in working order. A doctor or lawyer who can earn only a few dollars a week is not the one you would employ in serious matters. Cheap labor cannot compete with dear labor in lines where special skill is required. Man can be compared to a machine or engine in this respect. The small ones burn little fuel, and they furnish very little power. The large ones burn ten times the amount, but the difference in the work is worth many times that of the little engine, even if more expense is necessary to run them.

So it is with men. There are some whose efficiency is obtained with small consumption, whose work requires neither brains nor exceptional skill. Such men will always remain poor because the best commercial saving in such lines is obtained by low output and low consumption. Again there are men who require a greater amount of food and a diversity of enjoyment. These men go into lines of work where efficiency is obtained by moderate consumption. Finally, there are a few men whose economy is greater still and whose power can be obtained only by enormous consumption of the products of others, past and present. These lines mark the difference between riches and poverty. The people who are like the small engine will always be the ones who receive the small earnings, because their numbers are great and the price of their labor is so low that it is impossible for men with a high standard of living to compete with them in doing work which requires no special mental qualifications. The high-grade man (comparable to the large engine) who tries to compete with an increasing number of low-grade men will find himself forced to the wall. The competition of those who increase their numbers instead of shortening their hours will drive the higher grade men out of some things and up into others.

Let us consider for a moment the popular idea that low rates of wages are necessary to low cost of production, and that high rates of wages can be paid only with high cost of production.

Now if an employer were to consider the discharge of some of his workmen during a dull season of the year, would he retain the workman who earns the greatest wages by the piece or the one who earns the smallest wages? If no other question entered into consideration, he would of course discharge the one who earns the smallest wages. Every manufacturer knows that the man who does the most work for the least money is the cheapest laborer. In manual labor it is the strongest, in mechanical work it is the one who is the quickest. In the running of a machine it is the one who makes the least stops.

The real cost of any given article is the quantity of labor or human effort expended in its production, but on the other hand an employer may bargain with his employees and hire workmen by the week as shown before, and have the same work produced for less money than would be paid by the piece. In that case low production would result from low wages paid to skilled laborers. The rate of wages does not determine the cost of production, for the rates of wages may be the same in two cotton factories in the same place, and yet the cost of production will vary so much that one factory will prosper and the other fail, because the quantity of product will be different, and the profit and loss of mills rests chiefly upon the quantity of goods produced. The reasons for this may be many. In one the machinery may be old, in the other, new. In one the material may be poor, and in the other, good. Or the product may be sold too low in the one, and well sold in the other. In one the goods may be unsalable, while in the other they may meet the fashion. In one mill the running expenses may be too great to allow any profits, while the other may run on economical lines. Under these various conditions high wages may be

paid consistently with low cost of production in one factory, and low wages may be paid, notwithstanding the high cost of production, in the other. Low rates of wages are not always essential to low cost of production. A manufacturer is not always obliged to secure labor at low rates of wages to make goods cheap, but low wages in general indicate a high cost of production. The cheapest labor in the end is the best paid labor. It is the best paid labor applied to machinery that assures the largest product in proportion to the capital invested. In the United States the high rate of wages in money is the result or consequence of the generally low labor cost of production—that is, of the smaller quantity of labor by which the production is assured. The less quantity of labor suffices because of the application of the most efficient machinery.

At an average of 200 pounds per head in the United States, we find that the equivalent of one man's work for one year, divided between the coal mine and the iron furnace, suffices for the supply of 500 persons. One operator in the cotton factory makes cloth for 250, in the woolen factory for 300. One shoe worker in a modern shoe factory furnishes 1,000 men with all the boots and shoes they require in a year. The more effective the capital, the higher the wages, the lower the cost, and the greater the supply.

Day laborers in the United States have always tried to prevent immigration of foreigners whose habits and ways of living are cheaper than their own, believing that they would find it hard to meet the competition. But immigration, instead of injuring labor, has in many ways helped it. Some of the laborers have brought with them small amounts of capital which has been of benefit. If the reduction of the cost of the lowest grades of labor has been a disadvantage to those who compete in producing it, on the other hand it has served as a great advantage to every consumer. And it has made those in higher industrial groups better off because

they are relieved from doing work which could be done better by cheap labor and poor men.

Wages are paid from capital. Adam Smith's definition of capital is, "Wealth used for the production of other wealth." It is that part of the wealth of a country which is employed in production, and consists of food, clothing, tools, raw material, machinery, and any other thing necessary to give effect to labor. A manufacturer, for example, has part of his capital in the form of factories, or machinery, or merchandise, as wool, flax, leather, or metal, also a certain amount of money which he pays to his workman. He may have finished goods in a storehouse by the sale of which he will obtain more money to be used in the same manner to keep his machines in repair and to buy more stock. His money and finished goods are not all capital because they are not all devoted to the production of other wealth. He probably employs part of his wealth in supplying his personal needs, in luxuries for himself and family, in paying taxes, or in charity. What, then, constitutes his capital? Only that part of his wealth which he employs in creating new products, or increased income.

Accumulations of capital have their chief usefulness as a means of producing income. It is hard to state what objects are capital and what are not. Public capital is not the combination of the capital of individuals any more than public wealth is the total of individual property rights.

The distinction between different kinds of wealth defines public wealth as that which permits of enjoyment, whether it has a commercial value or not. The use obtained from these things is the public income. The French economists believed strongly in the powers of nature in making national prosperity and wealth, that is, the supply of food.

Wealth, in the private sense of property, consists of one's right to the public wealth. The amount of one's rights which one has during a certain period is one's income.

The French economists did not lay enough stress upon the utilization of agricultural products in determining the nation's wealth. The real prosperity of a nation depends more upon the use it makes of its wealth at any one time. The nation's income is not represented by so much money on hand in the treasury, but by the purchases made with that money; not by an amount of food in storehouses, but by the products produced by those who consume it. Capital does not furnish the true measure of wages, but they are measured by present industry. Sir William Mildmay, one of the early writers, expresses his idea that the wages of laborers are determined by the price of food. "As plenty and scarcity will in general determine the price of provisions, so the price of provisions will, in general, determine the wages of labor." This view of the wage question does not meet the conditions of modern industry. Vauban and Boisguillebert take the same social point of view.

Ricardo, one of the later writers, taught that permanent or "natural" wages depended simply on the price of food. The advance of capital to laborers determined only market wages which adjusted themselves to "natural" wages by a variation in the number of laborers. One of the applications of Ricardo's teachings on "natural" wages was that a tax on food would raise the price, "wages would inevitably and necessarily rise," and profits would have to suffer. The dependence of profits on the price of food through wages is the weak spot in Ricardo's theories. A rise in the price of wheat or sugar would not necessarily raise the price of labor and wages. We cannot go into a discussion of the source of wages without considering the theory of wages advanced by the political economists of the English School, known as the Wage-Fund Doctrine, which is as follows: "There is, for any country, a sum of wealth set aside for the payment of wages, which is a portion of the total wealth of the country. The ratio between the aggregate wealth or capital and the portion devoted to the payment of wages is

not always the same, but at any given time the amount of the wage-fund, under existing conditions, is determined by the amount of capital. The wage-fund is definite at the time taken. The amount of it cannot be increased by appeals of the working class. The sum set aside for the payment of wages is distributed by competition. If one obtains more, another must, for that reason, obtain less, or be kept out of employment. Workmen are paid out of this sum, and out of this alone. The whole of that sum is distributed without loss; and the average amount received by each laborer is accurately determined by the ratio existing between the wage-fund and the number of laborers. This fund having at any time been determined for that time, the rate of wages will be according to the number of persons then applying for work. If they be more, wages will be low; if they be fewer, wages will be high." The wage-fund doctrine has been endorsed largely on both sides of the Atlantic. It really grew out of the state of affairs which existed in England about the time of the Napoleonic wars. Capital had accumulated to such an extent that employers paid their laborers by the month, the week or the day, instead of waiting until the returns were realized from the marketed product. Wages were also low at that time and laborers obtained merely a bare living wage, so that an increase in their numbers either threw some out of employment or reduced the wages of all. This has given rise to the wage-fund theory that wages are paid out of capital and that the rate is determined by the ratio between capital and population.

But the conditions which prevailed in England have not been known in the United States. Here the people have not been shut out from the land; the laboring classes have been able to make and have made large sums of money; and the vast sums of wages have, since the earliest history of this country, been paid not out of capital, but out of the completed product when marketed.

In the United States, the industrial conditions have been better for the payment of wages, while in England the financial conditions have been more favorable. To repeat; it is industrial conditions which determine the amount of wages—the necessities, comforts, and luxuries which the laborer receives; the financial conditions determine only the manner and time of payment—whether at once or at some specified time. As has been said before, wages are paid out of the product of present industry, and the value of the product furnishes the true measure of wages. An employer advances wages to buy labor, not to spend or get rid of any extra wealth he may have. He buys labor, not to keep the workmen employed, but because he desires to increase his wealth. He produces wealth with a view of profit to himself, individually. This is the sole reason for production. If a person has wealth, it does not follow that he should spend any of it on labor, machinery, or materials. It is only when he sees that he can increase that wealth through production that he employs labor in producing more wealth. It is true that at times manufacturers will make goods at a loss or with no profits at all, for the sake of keeping the plants running and his working force together during the quiet seasons. In this case the employment of labor is not for production at a profit.

When men are receiving wages which give them a margin for amusements and luxuries, then it is that they often become unreasonable and demand certain rates of wages, refusing to work or accept offers which are not as liberal as they desire their employers to make. This is more true in cities where luxuries are abundant than in the country where the laborer requires less and has sufficient for his wants. What the employer can afford to pay must be determined by the grade of merchandise and amount of the product. In the case of boots and shoes, in all grades, the wages constitute one-third of the whole cost of the product. The price of labor and wages is also determined by competition, re-

quirements of the market, or the supply and demand of labor, and in that case should be treated as a commodity. The amount of wages is determined by the ratio which exists between the working population and the circulating part of capital which is spent in the direct purchase of labor.

To consider labor with reference to competition, one must apply the principle of the sliding scale and establish for the laborer a standard wage. A refusal may force him to starve or seek other employment. Students who have considered the matter in all its bearings hesitate to consider labor as a commodity, instead of dealing with the subject on the principle of the living wage. If the men who demand a "living wage" are prepared to increase their working efficiency as a means of making good their claims, their demand is effective in securing its object and salutary in its influence upon industrial life. But wages cannot be paid without work, and increased efficiency of work is bound to result from increase or improvement in wages.

Adam Smith and Malthus taught the doctrine that there is a fund of food in nature, apart from human labor, which they have called "the natural means of subsistence;" that population is supplied in proportion as it remains small relatively to this natural means of subsistence; and that as it becomes abundant the increase of offspring among mankind is a check reducing the rates of wages until the means of subsistence catch up with the number of men. The fallacies of this doctrine can be plainly seen, for it is only in the savage state that the food fund which sustains life is supplied by nature, and even then division of labor is required, and therefore an increase of laborers becomes a source of greater abundance in the supply. Then again, the poor always multiply faster than the rich, and men are always more reckless in multiplying their species when poor.

Every species of animal, including man, constitutes a means of subsistence for other animals, and the faster they

multiply the more means of subsistence there must be. For example man, by raising crops as food for animals, increases the subsistence of horses, cows, sheep, goats, and all domestic animals.

The check on decline of wages by diminishing population would be years in taking effect. During the first four or five years of childhood the cost of the child's support does not exceed the increased value of the laborer's work through the extra exertions which come from the parents' responsibility. It is only after about ten years that the cost of the child's maintenance is felt, but by that time, in many conditions of life, he should be worth his board as a helper. On a farm he can gather eggs, feed the chickens, or harness the horse. In the city he can perform many tasks about the house. There should not be any unproductive period, in the full economic sense, in any human life.

The law, or government, has no control over a man as to whether he shall work for wages all his life or whether he shall make a fortune and employ thousands of laborers. Birth or education, particularly the latter, affect it some, but race or sex does not influence life in any one direction.

The qualities which keep men in the wage class or take them out of it are clearly definable and always end in the same results. Haste in forming judgments, egotism, conceit, and inability to follow instructions of those who are responsible for the success of a business, will put otherwise able men among the wage class. The author had a very able employe who, after two years of steady work, became overconfident and branched out on his own responsibility, with the result that in six months he had made a complete failure of his business, lost all his money, and had to accept a much inferior position, to obtain a living.

The thirst for drink is probably one of the greatest causes which condemn men to the wage class. Then, too, timidity about investing one's money in doubtful enterprises for fear

of losing it prevents many a man from becoming an employer of labor.

Multiplicity of aims, when one is operating a business, such as the desire to become proficient in art, music, politics, religion, or social reform, or, in common language, "too many irons in the fire," will often prove disastrous to success.

A defective sense of money values, or inability to discern in what direction values will rise, will keep a man in the wage class. A man's temper and disposition have an important effect. He must know how to handle labor under all circumstances, not be quarrelsome, ill-tempered, or captious, but conservative, kind, and quick to settle controversies by compromise.

The man who is faithful in small things will be ruler over many things. Those who in a small enterprise will devote the maximum of its returns to reproductive results are the ones who will control industry. Upon these qualities labor depends for its employment and the employer for success. When by these means as much industry as one mind can guide has come under one control, then the possessor will have risen to his greatest possible utility and usefulness and will profit as an accumulator of capital and an organizer of labor. Whoever has seen anything of the two classes of men knows that precipitancy, misinformation, lack of courage, ignorance and miscalculation, if they characterize the actions of assemblies or organizations, will cause failure. The wage relation as surely exalts the skillful profit-maker to the position of master as it lowers the ignorant wage-earner to that of servant. It rises out of psychological causes and is as clearly a part of the constitution of man as the causes which distinguish force and matter are of physics or chemistry.

What has the future for the wage-earner in the factories and elsewhere throughout the country? If steady wages cannot be secured, owing to the decrease in demand and loss

of employment, the laborers must look to other sources for the betterment of their condition, striving to rise in efficiency and excellence in work. They must endeavor to bargain with the employer and settle without strikes disputes which are costly and dangerous. Great benefit is bound to come to the laborers through laws passed by the state for improvements in factories. Much hope for the worker will result from the enlargement of industry caused by increase of capital as well as by improved machinery and better methods of manufacture. An increase of production means more wages for the worker and a larger share of the product. The laborer must learn that new machines and new productions invariably increase income in the end. Owing to increased demand and quicker production, the laborers are given steadier employment. The building and operating of electric railroads after 1898 raised the wages of capable laborers in many American States. The automobile business has grown up rapidly in a very few years. The American railroads, employing over a million people, require so much hauling from stations that wagon transportation employs a larger percentage of people than before railroads were built. Then again, the fewer men employed in producing food and necessities of life, the more there are left to produce comforts and luxuries which will be exchanged for the surplus of those men whose income is too large to be consumed in the simpler commodities and who may not wish to save all the surplus to add to their capital without increase of wants and luxuries. The men displaced by labor-saving machinery could only find work by taking the places of the least desired workers who have been forced out upon charity. Men displaced by new machinery can generally adapt themselves quickly to another kind of work, even though they have passed middle age. The more machinery we have the better.

Low wages do not mean that vice and immorality will follow. Take for illustration the mining camps of the West.

There, where the highest wages in the world prevail, are to be found the worst examples of human degradation. On the other hand, take some of the Canadian farming towns, among which the author has spent much of his time. The lowest wages in the world are paid in these small villages and hamlets, yet the highest class of moral, law-abiding, upright people are found among these farmers, far better in many ways than the laborers of cities where wages are much higher. Low wages do not cause vice. People in the poverty-stricken districts of cities often grow up in vice before they become wage-earners, and then, because of ignorance, earn small wages and remain evil. Inefficiency is bound to lower wages. The dull intellect is not troubled by low wages but is contented with little. Of course, in some cases long hours of work which exhaust the body, and low wages which tend to weaken hope for better things, will cause men to drink, and thus promote vice, but only a small proportion of the total drunkenness and crime in the United States was caused from the start by low wages. A larger proportion could and has resulted from idleness in time of depression or strikes.

In the country the people would be happy with low wages if they had never known the city. Food and living expenses are cheaper in the country and the temptations are less. Starting dance halls, pool rooms, and saloons will bring drunkenness and crime to the most upright community that ever existed, if the people have not been educated in principles above such a level. The misery and crime which exists today in American slums is due to society, not because of any form of oppression, but through failure to bring about reforms which would improve the conditions of life among those who need the help of society. Present laws are being strictly enforced for control of tenements and workshops, for sanitation and education, and for decreasing crime and poverty. By these methods knowledge may be increased, wages may rise, and morality be promoted. The slum

people are themselves partly to blame for their condition of poverty through voting for the boss, who favors them by offering jobs and bribes of drink and whose corruption is one of the causes of their wretchedness. Not alone does the blame rest upon their shoulders, but leaders also are to blame when, by monopoly of industries and greed for gain, they devote themselves entirely to enriching themselves and neglect to give any time to bringing about needed reforms. In justice it must be said that in many instances employers would be helped to do their duty by the people if the people would honor their efforts at reform. Every class should strive to look beyond its own short-sighted selfishness and self-interests to the good of the public. The various evils which exist are just what the people make them. Each man is to blame so far as he neglects to do his duty towards society and mankind.

Only so far as men become pure in morals and ideas can there be purity in society. There must be the willingness of self-denial for the right. The first cause of vice is the evil born in one's nature, which can be overcome to a large extent by will power and the power of religion. Of course, temptations will always be present. Education and wealth may lift one above the temptations of one social side of life, but unfortunately only into another. One must form settled habits of morality, and in that way guard against evil. The standard of morality can be high where wages are low, if the true spirit of industry, frugality, contentment, and religion exists. Idleness, laziness, and greed are the greatest causes of vice in all conditions of society. Also, in times of depression crime is bound to increase. An increase will often come in cases where home ties are broken and hope gives way to despair. The slaves of the South were driven into bondage by crime, which increased under conditions of idleness and lack of ambition. The proportion of idleness to crime is indicated by the proportion of convicts who were brought up at no regular trade, usually amounting to three-

fourths of their number. Low wages in England, before the introduction of machinery, had the effect of making the workers dull and heavy, as it does now in small communities, but not criminal or given to vice. The increase of drunkenness which, towards the end of the eighteenth century, many thinkers were led to believe was caused by leisure and surplus income, was confined to the higher paid skilled men. Higher wages, coming later to poorly paid men, were first spent by many in drunkenness before they began an effort to raise their standard of living. Brassey, a noted contractor, found that in England high pay so increased efficiency as to lower cost of labor, but that it made the people ambitionless. People of India do less work on high wages than with low pay. This is also true in some cases in the author's factory. When a man is earning moderate wages and the work is steady, he works better, has more ambition, and is very seldom given to drunkenness. The reasons for this are very obvious. With moderate wages he uses his best energies and efforts to increase his efficiency; and knowing that by perfect workmanship he will earn better wages in the future, his ambition is aroused, he realizes that he is destined for a better position in life than he now occupies; and all his efforts and mind are given to the work. He seldom takes intoxicating liquors, first, because he knows that he cannot accomplish his work if he indulges in immoral habits, and secondly, because his wages will not allow him to spend money on luxuries, all of it being needed for the necessities of life. On the other hand, if the man receives large wages he soon becomes self-reliant and his ambition, which was once his ruling passion, grows weaker as he thinks his ambitions have been realized. With a larger income he has more leisure and time for pleasures, luxuries, and often dissipations. Money comes easy and goes easy, if the man be of weak character.

Crime and vice are often less common among the ignorant and uneducated than among those who have tasted of

dissipation and whose desires are greater. Education gives a person power, but often fails to improve his morals. The Canadian farming villages that are known the world over for their high morals have a fair average of education, but not the keenness of intellect that is found in some corrupt cities. Education should be of the sort to make the person do his work better and increase his efficiency. Denmark and Norway are model cities of industry and only one per cent. of the population of reading age cannot read and write. Since the Civil War the education of negroes has been carried to a high degree of efficiency. Before the War only three per cent. of the negro slaves could read and write. Now forty-seven per cent. of the blacks can read and write. The education which is being carried on teaches the Southern blacks to do practical farming, laboring, and mechanical and professional work. Such work not only improves their living, but occupies and contents their minds, in most cases eliminating the desire for idleness and crime. A wrong idea of freedom and education undoubtedly did much harm to the Southern negroes. Very few of the freed slaves realized that freedom meant work as before, only more strenuous in effort, and that their success depended upon themselves. Their first teachers from the North had noble ideals and intentions, but their methods were old-fashioned, not the modern ideas of social life and education and practical ways of getting a living. The results were good in training teachers and ministers, but the vast majority were poor blacks hired on farms where many of them do not work regularly and steadily, but have grown up since the war to dislike farm work and have proven themselves unreliable.

A prominent college president before the Industrial Commission stated that the production of wealth in the different States varies in the same proportion as the average number of years of education the youth of the State receives, and gives as a conclusion that the States having the most education produce the most wealth, because the workers have

the greatest intelligence. However, I think he has overlooked the product of the enormous capital in machinery—the vast production of factories—in such States as Massachusetts, which are operating factories by ignorant foreign labor unable, in many cases, to read or write. Germany had education in free schools long before England, but owing to wars and lack of enterprise, Germany found herself far below England in wealth production until recent times. The right kind of knowledge creates enterprises and they in turn give productive wealth. The wage-worker must learn that wages are fixed by the value his work adds to the product. Where the selling price of the product will demand \$5.00 a day in wages, payment of more will reduce the value to the consumer, with a consequent reduction in wages.

In conclusion, what is the duty of society? Those who are strong in wealth should help and encourage the weaker classes to break away from bad habits, to hope for better things, and to gain self-control and good business judgment. Each one should engage in work best suited to himself, thereby giving to industry the highest measure of perfection and reducing the minimum of incapacity.



CHAPTER IV.

RELATION OF EMPLOYER TO EMPLOYEE.

employer finds many difficulties in management of his business in regard to perfect organization of his workers and the best methods of training and instruction. The larger the business or the more complicated the product, the greater the difficulty.

Many successful employers and men of wealth have expressed their sense of responsibility and good-will to their employes by acts which have been of great benefit to those who have been the means of the development and success of the business. In no other country has this been done to such an extent as in America. Hardly a large manufacturing city or town can be found that does not show the good results of the manufacturer's wealth. Among the well-known manufacturers and concerns of the country who have done much for their own cities or towns might be mentioned Henry Ford, Detroit; the National Cash Register Company, Dayton, Ohio; Ludlow Manufacturing Company, Ludlow, Mass.; the Cranes of Dalton, Mass.; the Drapers of Hopedale; Thomas G. Plant Company, of Jamaica Plain, and many others. The interest shown by these concerns has descended from generation to generation. Large gifts have been made to charitable institutions and homes have been built for the comfort of the employes. Many concerns in America have adopted the system, in use extensively throughout England, of "Profit Sharing," which is a method of paying out of the profits a dividend to the workman, based on the amount of his wages. The spirit of fair dealings to all is quite essential to the success of any business.

The employer must recognize in the workman any characteristic which would entitle him to a position of responsibility, realizing that every workman, young or old, has the desire to improve his condition.

The love of home and the desire for the education of their children is inherent in all men and women. When factories were small, the employer came into personal contact with his men, but today, where thousands work in one factory, this is quite impossible and the relations must be exerted through foreman and superintendent.

The ideas and plans that can be introduced in factories are many and varied. Improvements can be made in some way in most all factories, and some suggestions which will be of great benefit to the laboring class in general will be described in this chapter.

Fresh air, clean rooms, abundance of bright sunlight and electric lighting at night, are of utmost importance. Kerosene lamps, and even gas, which is now seldom used in factories, will quickly ruin the eyesight. Curtains should be used on all windows to regulate the amount of sunlight, and the walls of factories should be painted of such color as to be restful to the eyes of workers. Cleanliness should be insisted upon at all times, and floors of rooms should be swept night and morning. Protection from machinery and dust are required by law. Waste cans are now required by insurance companies, and have proven of much help in disposing of rubbish. Places should be provided for discarded articles, such as parts of machinery, unused tools, damaged goods, or anything that is not ready for immediate use. Economy should be insisted upon among the workmen. A well-regulated factory should have water that is pure and in convenient places for the workmen. In some factories boys carry water in cans to the employees while at work.

Provision should be made for the comfort of the men and women, that they may have suitable and clean places for washing the hands and face. Neat clothing adds to their sense of self-respect. A large number of foundries and

factories supply lockers and baths for men to use before leaving the buildings. This has proven to be a benefit, and secures a higher and better class of men, and consequently better work. The personal comfort and health of employes require much thought and attention. Not a few factories have their employes examined by a physician, to ascertain whether they have any weakness which would be effected by the special work which they are to perform. The points considered in most cases are weight, height, whether married or single, vaccination, mental troubles, if any, family history in regard to diseases of the eyes, nose, throat, lungs, heart, etc., or if addicted to use of spirituous liquors, tobacco, or other vices. Another important help for employes, required by the State, is a small dispensary with medicine where bandages, plaster, etc., can be quickly obtained. In the author's factory this was the means of saving the life of a workman who was badly cut in an artery by a large knife, as it was only by the quick application of bandages that the flow of blood was stopped.

Several large manufacturing plants have fitted up lunch rooms where employes can obtain meals at low rates. The National Cash Register Company has carried the plan out on a large scale. In this instance, the workers are supplied with two kinds of good, substantial food, with tea, coffee, cocoa, or milk. Rates of one cent a day are charged and it is claimed that the extra good work resulting from the effects of wholesome food more than pays the cost of the lunch.

In a number of factories, in either the lunch room or one near it, will be found a piano for use during the noon hour. The Cleveland Glass Company has club-rooms for men and women for amusement and reading. Sometimes the hour is spent in practical talks or entertainments. The Cleveland Twist Drill Company has a large, cheerful dining room in which are three long tables seating about 300 people.

A Chicago office has recently introduced the custom of serving tea and wafers to its force of women stenographers

at three o'clock each afternoon, to strengthen them during the weary last hours of the day. The National Shawmut Bank of Boston furnishes its clerks with a full course dinner to compensate for the extra hours of work during the busy seasons of the year.

To encourage men to invent new methods of work and create new improvements, many concerns have offered prizes for suggestions and ideas. This plan is the means of broadening the minds of the workmen beyond the mere details of the work upon which they may be engaged.

Quite often in factories the men in authority do not care to hear or accept suggestions from workmen. Especially is this true of foremen who wish to have their own ideas carried out and get the credit for any improvement in the product. But the author has found by personal experience that many good and valuable ideas can be obtained from workmen who have labored for months and even years upon a certain line of work.

It is very easy for a man who has operated certain machines for a long time to invent some new and better method of shortening his labor where a man who is his overseer would never discover it. Remarkable success has been obtained by offering prizes for new inventions. The idea should be fully explained to the employe to satisfy his mind that he as well as the employer is to receive benefit from any idea suggested. Printed bulletins can be posted throughout the factory stating the prizes, the time for competition, and the plans for examination. Suggestions can cover a variety of subjects, such as new methods of management, improvement in tools and labor-saving devices, ways to prevent waste of materials, new designs and styles in products, changes in the buildings or grounds, personal comfort of the employes, and new advertising schemes to help increase the business.

In every case the prizes offered should be only for the employes outside of the heads of the departments, or those employed on regular salaries. The correct method of re-

coding suggestions is by means of autographic registers, which make duplicate copies, the original being torn off and kept by the writer, while the other is locked in the machine. In some cases a small ballot box can be used, in which slips are dropped, signed by the workmen. Decisions can be made by the secretary of the factory, a committee, or some person appointed for the purpose.

The length of time for the competition may vary as desired. The National Cash Register Company offers fifty prizes in sums of \$50, \$40, \$30, \$25 and \$20, fifteen of \$15, and thirty of \$10, each six months. This is the idea of the Cleveland Hardware Company, also, which offers \$100, divided into six parts, varying from \$5 to \$50. The Eastman Kodak Company offers sixteen prizes amounting to \$150 quarterly.

Another form of assistance to factory workers is a library and reading-room. Some factories where this has been adopted confine themselves to books of a technical nature, while others supply general and miscellaneous reading. In some cities and towns the public libraries arrange to establish at the factories branches for the use of books that may be exchanged at an interval of a month or so. It has often been found difficult to decide upon the best magazines for use in factories, but a selection of the following is very desirable: *Review of Reviews*, *American Machinist*, *Cosmopolitan*, *McClures*, *Century*, *Harpers Magazine*, *Ladies' Home Journal*, *Scribners*, *Success*, *Outing*, *Public Opinion*, *Scientific American*, *Youth's Companion*, and *Saturday Evening Post*.

Some factories publish a magazine of their own which helps to cultivate a closer co-operation among employes and agents regarding the manufacture or sale of the product, describing any new improvements. If prizes are awarded, the names of the winners, with details of the contest, are published. Among a few of the well-known concerns issuing magazines are National Cash Register Company, which publishes a semi-monthly magazine; the Sherwin Williams Com-

pany, the "Chameleon"; the Acme White Lead Company, "Thoughts"; Eastman Kodak Company, "The Suggestion Bulletin"; H. J. Heinz Company, "Pickles"; E. W. Burt Company, "Grippertown News." Many of these are beautifully illustrated. Some are devoted to local and factory matters, others to methods of selling and making.

Still another practical method of helping the workers is in buying the commodities of every day life. Some companies make arrangements for purchasing goods at less than regular prices. In the case of tools, arrangements have been made to purchase them at 10 to 25 per cent. less than the regular prices in retail stores. Coal, provisions, clothing, and luxuries are purchased at wholesale by some companies, saving the employees a considerable amount each year.

The Illinois Steel Company of Joliet has a plan of co-operative purchases of flour, potatoes, books, magazines, clothing, etc. The National Cash Register Company obtains reduced rates on magazines, books, and other articles for the benefit of their employees.

The question of the employment of women is a very important one. This class of labor is found to a large extent in almost all manufacturing establishments. A prominent owner of a large mill said that he was certain that four or five years' work in one of the mills practically destroyed the womanhood of an employee. This is a subject for serious thought. Women are sensitive to their surroundings and will respond with a loyalty and interest that is not known among men employees. Faithfulness in work, reliability, honor, and loyalty to the employer are much greater among the women operatives than among the men. During a certain space of time it has been found that on the average the women employees excel the men in matters of honesty. Rarely has it been found that a woman has stolen goods or merchandise from the factory or entered wrong numbers or amounts in the weekly pay-roll, which frequently occurs among the men. Few cases have been recorded of women

employees being absent from work except through sickness or absolute necessity, whereas among men it is one of the most difficult problems to educate them to the importance of promptness in hours of work. Rarely if ever does a woman have to be censured for idleness during working hours. Diligence in work, with temperate habits, is characteristic of women. Intemperance among men is one of the chief causes for idleness and discharge, with which women do not have to contend.

It is desirable that shorter hours should be established for women. Several concerns have reduced the hours of women employees with good results. The arrangement of having women leave work before the men has a good effect on the relation of the men and women throughout the factory. A recess of ten minutes in the morning and afternoon is of much help to women who are engaged upon work requiring close attention to detail. The New York Telephone Company grants twenty minutes' recess twice a day, and the night operators are allowed three hours' rest each night.

The employer of women should consider carefully the welfare of his women employees, and allow them such comforts as are consistent with their work, not over-burdening them with heavy work or long hours. The results are bound to result in faithfulness on their part, and in the end a much higher class of women will be obtained than would otherwise be possible.

It has often been asked whether the theory can be accepted that woman ought to, with average profit to herself, be a self-supporting competitor in the labor market. There are many women to whom the restraint of a family relation seems unbearable. There are, however, many cases of young girls who are thrown upon their own resources, where work is necessary for support of the family. But woman's place is in the home and not at the bench. How much better a wife a woman becomes who has never suffered the hardships of factory life! There are many circumstances which render a woman's work of less value than that of a man. Her

prospective marriage constantly threatens to end her work, while the marriage of a man confirms the steadiness of his work, provided he marries the right kind of a woman. Woman's offer of labor in the market is not sought for as much as that of a man. Her work must be suited to a woman. The average of women workers to men is about one in ten.

The introduction of machinery has not been followed by a great increase in the proportion of labor done by women and children. A much larger proportion of industrial work is done by women in unprogressive parts of Europe where the new and modern machines are unknown in factories. If one will examine the censuses of the United States, he will find an increasing proportion of men engaged in manufactures, a nearly stationary proportion of women, and an actually decreasing proportion of children.

Although machinery may dispense with physical strength, it requires great responsibility in handling which could not be supplied by women and child labor.

The interest which the employer shows for his employees will not be lost or forgotten. Experience has shown that where any plans are carried out for the benefit of the laborers they in turn have responded readily and heartily to the efforts of the employer and have sought to benefit by their opportunities. In many cases they have organized among themselves clubs, organizations, and societies of various kinds.

Any methods of bettering the condition of the employees has been the means of securing better workmanship and faithfulness to their duties. The employee should show his appreciation of the efforts of his employer by more painstaking work, by preventing damage to the products, and by not wasting time which belongs to his employer. In many factories damage to goods in process of manufacture is a large and important item. It is so great in some factories that it has become necessary to charge the loss to the workman. With proper care on the part of the employee, damage

to goods may be reduced to almost nothing. Of course accidents are bound to occur, especially among "green" help, but when a workman has filled a position for months or years upon only one line of work there is no excuse for damaged goods passing through his hands.

A case in point came under the author's notice. A certain workman, temperate and of superior intelligence, allowed nearly fifty pairs of shoes to be cut through the vamp by a guide which had become worn on his machine. These shoes were sold at a loss of \$1.00 a pair. Other cases of similar nature could be mentioned which were caused by carelessness on the part of the operator.

Let every worker realize that the success of any business of which he is a part depends as much upon his individual efforts as those of any other employe.

"Perfection in work" should be the golden rule of every employe. A personal interest in daily labor is what the employe wants. The intelligent and faithful efforts of every man and woman, from the lowest to the highest, are sure to bring about a successful harmony and just relations between the great army of employes and their employers.

CAUSES OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS REPORTED DURING NOVEMBER, 1915

Cause.	Strikes.	Lockouts.	Total.
Wages	27	1	28
Hours	20	1	21
Wages and hours.....	14	1	15
Discharge of employes.....	8	2	10
Presence of non-union.....	8	1	9
Agreement	6	..	6
Recognition	5	..	5
Other causes	15	1	16
Total	<u>103</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>110</u>



CHAPTER V.

LABOR CONTROVERSIES.

strikes are a serious loss to both employer and employe, far reaching in effects. Many questions must be considered in discussing the differences of labor. There is no doubt that some strikes are beneficial, but starvation, poverty, loss of wages, and even death are bound to follow in the wake of a bitterly fought labor war. Men and women are thrown out of employment, wages stop, and production ceases. Many and great are the strikes which have been fought in the American labor movement. The causes have been varied, success in some cases, defeat in others, being the results.

A strike occurs when the employes of an establishment refuse to work unless the management complies with some demand made by the strikers. A lock-out, so-called, occurs when the management refuses to allow the employes to work unless they will work under certain conditions established by the management, but opposed by the workmen. In effect, however, strikes and lock-outs are the same. One of the first strikes among American laborers occurred as early as 1792 among the shoemakers of Philadelphia, who left work until a higher scale of wages was paid, which in the end was secured. But in 1799 the shoemakers of Philadelphia again turned out to resist a reduction of wages. The strike lasted about ten weeks, and was only partly successful. Very few strikes occurred during Colonial days, as industry was young and the factory system had not become well established. When shops were small, the employers were in close relationship with their employes and differences were easily settled without dispute.

The shoemakers of Philadelphia were continually ordering strikes, and again in 1805 the Journeymen Shoemakers' Association turned out for an increase in wages. The demands ranged from twenty-five to seventy-five cents a pair increase. The strike lasted from six to seven weeks and ended unsuccessfully. In 1809 the shoemakers of New York ordered a strike, affecting nearly two hundred men, which was also unsuccessful.

The years 1821 to 1834 showed a number of strikes among carpenters, calkers, shoemakers, and tailors. The one of most influence upon the labor world came in 1834 in the city of Lynn, Mass., a city which was to become famous throughout the country for its many and bitterly fought strikes.

The strike in question was caused by the female shoe binders, who asked for an increase of wages. These women took the work from the factory to their homes, and they refused to continue at the old price. The number involved was about a thousand. The employers refused to agree to the demands, and finding it possible to get the work done in nearby towns, the strike came to an unsuccessful termination.

After the year 1835 and during that year there was a large number of strikes instigated by both men and women. The number of strikes by employes desiring more wages was so numerous as to call forth comments from the public press. An investigation conducted by the United States Department of Labor of all strikes occurring in the country from 1881 to 1886 inclusive shows that during those six years 3,902 strikes occurred, affecting over 20,000 factories. The number of workmen involved amounted to 1,300,000.

In 1880 the strikes recorded, as stated by C. Dwight, were some 3,400, but the number dropped to 2,928 in 1881, and in 1882 it went still further down to 2,105. In 1883 the number rose to 2,759. In 1886 the largest number of strikes occurred, amounting to 9,861.

The States where the largest number of strikes occurred were New York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Ohio, and

Illinois. It may be interesting to see the figures and results of these strikes from 1881 to 1886. Out of the 1,300,000 people affected, 88 per cent. were males and 11 per cent. were females. Forty-five per cent. of the strikes were successful, 14 per cent. partially successful, and 39 per cent. failures.

The number of strikes and lockouts in the United States during the first six months of 1915, including those which began prior to January 1, 1915, and remained unsettled on that date, were 658, according to data compiled by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics from newspapers and other sources. This number is but slightly larger than that shown for the first half of 1914, namely, 646.

According to the same authority, the number of strikes and lockouts during the five months, July to November inclusive, was 577. One strike which started in May, and 29 strikes and three lockouts which started in months not specified, but all of them not previously reported, were also brought to the attention of the Bureau during November, making a total of 610 new labor disputes during the five months ending November, 1915.

The total number of strikes and lockouts occurring during the 11 months of 1915, including the important strikes that began prior to January 1, but remained unsettled on that date, was 1,268. The total number of strikes and lockouts during the year 1914 was, according to the Bureau's data, 1,080.

In 110 cases the causes of the strikes and lockouts were given. Of these, 64, or 58 per cent., related to questions of hours and wages. Of the strikes, 27, or 26 per cent. were for an increase in wages, and 20, or 19 per cent., for a reduction of hours.

The number of strikes and lockouts during the six months, July to December, 1915, inclusive, was 735. The total number of strikes and lockouts during the 12 months of the year was 1,393.

The author had occasion to visit in Danbury, Conn., which is probably the largest hat manufacturing city in the country, and learned of the difficulty of one of the largest concerns there in 1903 in which they brought suit for damages of \$100,000 against the national officers and 250 local members of the hatters' union, the homes and bank accounts of the latter being attached. This suit was backed by the Anti-Boycott Society. The plaintiff claimed that because he refused to discharge non-unionists, though he was paying union wages, his business was nearly ruined by a boycott, which involved publication in unfair lists, and also threatened boycotting of dealers who sold his hats. Labor leaders defend boycotting as a legitimate and necessary weapon of labor and regard the tendency of the courts to condemn it as a great injustice. Boycotting is quite common in States where unions are numerous. Injunctions stopping boycotts, which courts will generally grant where the damage to the employer's business is great, have been quite frequent during the past few years. Large concerns doing business over a great area usually ignore a boycott. In 1903 a boycott was in progress against the cracker trust and another against the cigar trust. When a concern is opposed to unionism in an outspoken manner, a boycott is ordered by the union and the unionists use their influence as consumers to stop the buying of goods made by that concern, writing letters and sending circulars to merchants handling the concern's goods, or writing to advertisers, when the concern is a newspaper. But this manner of procedure has in one instance been enjoined. In a decision of 1898, which prevented the distributing of a boycotting letter sent out in a city of Michigan, the Supreme Court said in its decision: "They may present their cause to the public in newspapers or circulars in a peaceable way and with no attempt at coercion."

Further labor controversies will be considered in a later chapter.



CHAPTER VI.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

organizations, known as unions, ; shoe workers in Massachusetts have rapid strides and constitute a time-ed movement. We will consider history and movements as they affect itus of both sexes. The localities se-for study differ widely in respect to ton and Lynn, though very different

in their methods of organization, are strictly union centers. Boston and its outlying suburbs are practically unorganized.

Lynn and Brockton union officials, on whatever points they disagree, unite in stating the difficulty of holding women to a realization of the importance of organization for their own protection and the general good of the workers. The younger or smaller paid workers especially grudge the weekly dues, while the mature, steady women resent the expenditure of the union money for the occasional association recreation. Few women comprehend the value of unions in standardizing wages or seek to utilize them in securing physical or moral sanitation in the shops. A reason frequently assigned by men for the indifference of women to the unions is that they do not consider organization possible. A more reluctantly stated cause is the social atmosphere which follows membership in a union. This reason is strong in Brockton, possibly because women workers there are as a class considered socially superior to the men. The entrance of foreigners into the stitching rooms and their compulsory membership in stitchers' unions has increased this feeling, which especially prevails among Americans.

Women naturally spend more time in the home and are

not inclined to devote their time to organization work. Most women work in factories to assist in the support of families and add their earnings to the fathers' and sons' wages. There is not the demand for women workers compared to men, and wages are naturally lower.

In the southeastern towns of Massachusetts, except Lynn, nearly all shoe workers are members of the Boot and Shoe Workers' Union, an organization not affiliated with the American Federation of Labor.

The history of its inception and growth is interesting. It shows a record of good service. Since control over strikes was given to the Boot and Shoe Workers' Union the wages of its members have been protected. High dues and benefits add to the success.

"The growth of the Boot and Shoe Workers' Union is one of evolution and service, unity and progress, construction and success," says the *Boot and Shoe Workers' Journal*. It did not start under the most auspicious circumstances. We realize this fact better as we look back on its history. It started in April, 1895, with the declaration on the part of the then existing organizations of shoe workers that there should be one union in the shoe trade. But the financial plan of the new organization was weak. It was based upon low dues and a low per capita tax. It was based also on local autonomy. Each local union could do entirely as it pleased, and did so. If such action resulted in a strike, the national union could not support it, because no provisions had been made,—the union was not built that way. In 1898 the first arbitration contract was made. In 1899 a new constitution was adopted establishing twenty-five cent dues and sick, death, and strike benefits, under control of the national union, and giving the national union control over strikes.

In these two years the union changed from a mob to an organized force, and since the year 1899 the union has con-

tinually progressed by becoming constantly of more service and benefit to its members.

During these years of progress and of service since 1899, and in spite of the obstructive work of its enemies in 1903, 1909, this union has protected the wages of its members through all periods, especially during the panic of 1907 and through the long months of prostration due to the present war in Europe. There has been no slaughtering of the wages of the shoemakers since this union became efficient in the year 1899.

In addition to protecting the wages of its members against reduction, this union has been the means of constantly raising them, principally through the working out of the arbitration contract. In thousands upon thousands of instances the mere existence of this agreement to arbitrate has been the means of settling disputes by mutual adjustment without arbitration and upon terms favorable to the workers. Arbitration cases have been won and arbitration cases have been lost, but mutual adjustments have always been successful.

This union has redeemed every pledge. Every legal, sick, and death benefit has been paid. Every strike that has been sanctioned has been paid its strike benefit to the end, no matter how long the period was. That strikes have been less numerous is a tribute to the efficiency of the service of the organization through its arbitration and mutual adjustment policy.

This union has won a standing not only in the labor world, but in the shoe world. The union is recognized as a factor, and, more than that, is respected as a labor organization whose word and contract can be depended upon, and this in itself is an asset of no mean value. For when a labor organization has the respect of an employer, because of its disposition and its strength, it is a long way on the road towards a satisfactory adjustment of any honest differences of opinion.

In no factory in Brockton and in few situated in surrounding towns can a non-union man be employed. The various classes of operators are further organized into groups, as the Lasters' Union, the Vampers' Union, the Cutters' Union, etc. All of these send delegates to the joint council of the Boot and Shoe Workers' Union, which has a contract relation with the manufacturers, maintained in most instances for the past 10 or 15 years. The unions guarantee that there will be no strikes, the manufacturers that they will maintain a price list fixed by joint conference. In Brockton the higher wage, good factory equipment, and permanence of business concerns are no doubt largely due to the intelligent management of the unions.

The fact that the unions have to deal with a broad-minded class of manufacturers, who reside among and respect their working force, must be given a large place in the accomplishment of these results. One or two factories have stood conspicuously apart in their refusal to employ union labor. The old town of Bridgewater had a factory in which 90 per cent. of the working force were foreign born. As the managers made a point of teaching shoemaking, many workers went there for a time to learn, but left as soon as the processes were acquired to find work under better conditions. Women are less completely organized than men, though in Brockton the Stitchers' Union No. 154 numbers several thousand women. Some women belong to the Dressers' and Packers' Unions and others to the Vampers' or Skivers' Unions. Altogether, about four-fifths of the women of the Brockton district belong to unions. Dues for all members are 25 cents a week. Those who have been members for 6 months are entitled to a sick benefit of \$5 a week for 13 weeks, and for members in good standing for two years there is a death benefit of \$100. The officials of the women's unions complain of the lack of interest on the part of their membership and the difficulty of securing quorums for the fortnightly business meetings.

In strong contrast to the unified labor in Brockton and its stable relation to the employers are the chaotic conditions in Lynn. The multiplication of labor organizations, their discordant views, their varied actions, and their too frequent demands for alteration in shop conditions are assigned by many of the employers as causes of their opposition to unions. Within ten years many large firms have removed their plants to other centers less effected by unions. Five hundred manufacturers have started in Lynn since 1900, and only about 88 are left in 1917. Moving a factory means great expense to the business, not only in the cost of a new plant and loss of time and old help but in the loss incurred by settling amid a population untrained to shoemaking. It has been said that three generations are needed to make a skilled shoemaker. This dictum bids fair to be disproved in its limited sense, but what may not be true of the individual may be generally true of a community.

Among the Lynn shoe workers there are about 57 labor unions, most of them under the United Shoe Workers of America. The agent of the Boot and Shoe Workers' Union estimates that there are in the stitching rooms at Lynn about 3,000 women, one-third of whom belong to some union. The Boot and Shoe Workers' Union has several thousand. This does not include the workers who work only during the rush time. They do not have to join the union even in a closed shop, but if they remain longer, they are usually approached by the agent or forewoman and asked to join. It is claimed by the agent that the women do not take very much interest in the unions. At most of the meetings there are not more than 7 to 20 women present.

A labor agent states that practically all the men employed in the shoe factories in Lynn are organized in unions, and about one-third to one-half of all the women.

A secretary of the women's branch of the Boot and Shoe Workers' Union states that this union was established in

March, 1903, and includes all women workers in three factories. She asserts that the women are interested in the union; that the Americans and Irish take the most interest; but that few of the foreign women come to the meetings. Workers over 60 years of age are not admitted to the union. The rush help does not have to join nor do the forewomen. The regular business meeting is held once a month, and there are no social meetings. The women in the towns surrounding Lynn are not organized, but a number of men belong to unions as individuals.

A local union of the United Shoe Workers includes buttonhole operators, finishers, eyeletters, and buttoners. The first meeting was called December, 1907. The secretary states that 24 women workers met and organized, receiving hearty support from the Lasters' Union. The union was at first independent, but it has been affiliated with the United Shoe Workers of America for the past few years. The reason for organizing was the reduction in the price paid the women working on the buttonhole machines, a change due to the displacement of the old Singer machine by the Reece buttonhole machine, now universally installed. The increase in the amount of work done each day in connection with the new machine caused manufacturers to cut prices repeatedly, until the women were forced to protest. Under the rates now fixed by agreement with the unions as much can be made per day as when the Singer machines were used, and often more. The secretary states that organization has done more for the buttonhole operators than for any other class of workers in the shoe industry, and for this reason the union members are very enthusiastic. She asserts that the manufacturers have been square in their dealings and have co-operated with the union officials in raising prices, which both sides realized were too low. The usual meetings of this union have from 10 to 30 members present. A meeting has never been dismissed for lack of a quorum. The United Shoe Workers pay \$100 death benefit to the

members of any of the local unions under its organization who have been in good standing for the year. There is a good deal of social activity in the union.

An independent women's organization is the Buttonhole Operators' Union, formed a few years ago. Impetus to its foundation was given by the fact that there are in Lynn many contract rooms in which only the buttonhole and eye-letting work is done, and their cheap contracts keep down the prices in the regular shops. The secretary stated that before the union was formed workers could not make more than \$7 or \$8 a week, since the prices paid were only 3 cents to 3½ cents per 100 holes. When the union was organized it raised the price to 5 cents per 100.

In Marlboro, as well as in some of the surrounding small shoe towns, the organization of labor was fairly complete before the year 1898. At that time an occasion of disagreement arose between employers and employes on a question of no very material interest, as is now conceded. The result, however, was a universal strike on the part of the local working force, finally broken by the importation of outside workers, many of whom were Greeks. The women workers of Marlboro struck with the men at that time, as they were largely dependent on the action of the masculine element in the shoe-working force. In Boston, Jamaica Plain, Everett, and other shoe sections near Boston there are few union shops, while there is little effectively organized labor.

Labor men will point to the fact that the strongly organized centers, such as Lynn and Brockton, show the highest average wage. While the two conditions have doubtless a true relation, there are other factors which enter into the making up of the annual earnings. Among these are the quality of the product, the proportion of women workers, and the fact that in fixing wages in any locality the cost of living must be considered. Low wages in other centers are due partly to the character of the product and partly to the

standards of living among the unskilled workers largely employed in its manufacture.

In all organized shoe factories there are two classes of workers, in both men's and women's departments, and there are two methods of paying for the work, namely "time" and "piece" prices. Time payment is usually made where quality is of the greatest importance, in the case of high-priced leather. In Lynn the time price varies from \$25 per week upward in cutting finest qualities of upper leather requiring difficult patterns. In the stitching rooms, women on samples and difficult pattern work are paid by the hour, which averages about 30 cents per hour. Other parts upon which it is impossible to establish a piece price are usually done by the hour or week work. Beginners on blacking or cementing are started on weekly wages. All foremen and helpers, also boys, are employed on time work. Investigation of several factories shows that less than 20 per cent. are on time work, but some factories run as high as 30 to 40 per cent. This question has been touched upon in Chapter Three. Of the women in shoe factories 43 per cent. earn less than \$12 for the busiest week, while in other industries the number earning under \$9 varies from 63 per cent. to 92 per cent. (rubber boots and shoes being excepted). The woman who can choose the industry she will enter will, if she is satisfied at \$9 a week, select above all others the rubber-shoe factory. If she aims at \$10 and over, she will enter the shoe factory and be one of the women whose skilled work commands this wage.

The piece prices have certain relative ratios for different operations, but in all cases they are subject to a constant variation, dependent on the nature and value of the product. A vampper, for instance, may work one week to complete an order, being paid at the rate of 24 cents per dozen pairs; the next week the order may call for vamps worth 12 cents a dozen pairs. Various methods are used to fix a rate for new patterns or shapes, among which the following is com-

mon. A skilled or "sample" stitcher, who can stitch all parts of the shoe, is given the vamping in a new style of shoe to stitch for an eight-hour day. She is paid the maximum rate, say 25 cents an hour. She is found able to stitch 200 pairs in 10 hours, or 20 pairs in one hour. It is clear that if 20 pairs are worth 25 cents, 12 pairs are worth 15 cents, and the latter is fixed as the rate. The piece rate is, then, at the bottom, a payment for so much time. Though some of the operators will stitch the 20 pairs of vamps, or even more, in an hour, it is evident that the majority will not attain the speed of the expert stitcher. This is especially true of operations done by the less experienced. Were the piece price equalized with a time rate, it would seldom reach 25 cents an hour. The piece rate is usually per dozen pairs of shoes, or on 100 pairs in case lots. The piece-price system in shoe factories works out more satisfactorily for both employer and employe. In busy factories skilled shoemakers on Goodyear stitching machines, roughrounding, and welting machines earn weekly wages of \$40 to \$60 under the piece system. If I were a member of any labor union I should prefer to work on the piece system, which is the same principle as a shoe salesman on the road selling shoes on commission instead of salary.

A third factor influencing the amount of wages for both hand and machine workers is the dependence of one department upon another. The lasters depend upon the stitchers, the stitchers depend upon the cutters, the cutters upon the stock room, and the stock room waits to get out its leather in accordance with the order tickets from the office. However methodical may be the management, there are days when one department must wait upon another, or one lot of material be finished before another is at hand. The workers are not sure they will have work for all hours in any one day.

**AVERAGE ANNUAL EARNINGS OF ALL WORKERS IN FOUR CENTERS IN MASSACHUSETTS, AND
PER CENT. OF WOMEN WAGE EARNERS, CHIEF PRODUCT, AND CONDITION
AS TO LABOR UNIONS—1910.**

[Source: *Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics—25th Annual Report on the Statistics of Manufacturers, 1910.*]

LOCALITY.	AVERAGE ANNUAL PER CENT. EARNINGS.	OF WOMEN.	CHIEF PRODUCT.	CONDITION AS TO ORGANIZATION IN THE INDUSTRY.
Group I.				
Brockton	\$691	26.7	Men's Shoes	Strong Central Union
Weymouth	\$679	28.9	" "	" " "
Rockland	\$668	28.1	" "	" " "
Group Average	\$687			
Group II.				
Lynn	\$601	41.0	Women's Shoes	Many Separate Unions
Danvers	\$527	40.7	Children's and Infants'	
Salem	\$496	38.1	Women's and Children's	Partly Organized
Beverly	\$476	38.9	Women's Shoes and Slippers	Several Local Unions
Marblehead	\$451	40.0	Children's and Infants'	
Group Average	\$566			
Group III.				
Boston	\$532	40.5	Women and Children	No Organized Labor
Chelsea	\$497	38.1	Children's Shoes	A Few Local Unions
Group Average	\$521			
Group IV.				
Milford	\$578	32.2	Men's and Boys'	Recent Organizations
Worcester	\$575	41.0	Men's and Women's	Practically Unorganized
Natick	\$518	18.1	Men's and Boys'	No Unions
Marlboro	\$514	34.1	" "	" "
Hudson	\$511	33.1	" "	" "
Group Average	\$529			

NUMBER AND PER CENT. OF THE BOOT AND SHOE WORKERS, MALE AND FEMALE, AGED 18 OR OVER, EARNING CLASSIFIED AMOUNTS IN WEEK ENDING DEC. 16, 1911.

[Source: *Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics—Twenty-sixth Annual Report on the Statistics of Manufacturers.*]

CLASSIFIED WEEKLY EARNINGS.	MALES.		FEMALES.	
	No.	Percent.	No.	Percent.
Under \$10.....	10,326	19.5	14,277	53.1
\$10 but under \$12.....	6,305	11.9	5,159	19.2
\$12 " " \$15.....	10,853	20.5	4,645	17.3
\$15 " " \$20.....	15,248	28.8	2,386	8.9
\$20 " " \$25.....	6,821	12.9	370	1.4
\$25 and over.....	3,427	6.5	38	.1

More than half of the women earned under \$10; very nearly half the men (48.11 per cent.) earned over \$15. The largest single group of women in the detailed table from which the above is condensed consists of those earning \$10, but under \$12; the largest single group of men consists of those earning \$15, but under \$20. Relatively this single group of men is larger than the combined groups of men earning \$12 or over. As these figures are for the year 1911, new comparisons must be made to take into consideration the rapidly increased wage scales of the years of the European War.

COMMON RIGHT

John Porter worked in a shoe factory at Lynn, in the year 1890. He lived in a small cottage on Timpson Street and supported a family of three children and a wife, who assisted the support of the family by taking in washing. The oldest daughter, Jane, worked in the stitching room at the same factory at the bench, with the small weekly wage of five dollars during busy seasons and three dollars in dull times.

The youngest daughter, Anne, was only eight, and her illness was a constant drain upon the weekly earnings of the

Porter family. The doctor said Anne should be sent away to the country where the outdoor air, green fields, and farm life would restore her weak constitution to health and strength. In fact, the doctor said Anne had symptoms of consumption, and it was only a matter of time before the end would come, unless she went away.

John was an honest, hard-working man. He loved his family and did the best he could to give them the bare comforts and necessities of life. He was up every morning at six o'clock, helping his wife about the house with breakfast and getting ready his meager lunch to take to the factory. As the quarter of seven whistle blew he started on his morning's work for his daily grind.

On a certain Monday morning in December the snow covered the ground in a driving blizzard, the temperature fell below zero, and as John forced his way against the sleet and hail, which cut his face, he thought of his daughter Anne lying sick at home, helpless because he could not save one hundred dollars to send her where there was warmth and comfort. He thought of his ten years of faithful service in the shoe shop, where only one week during all these years had he been laid up, due to a severe injury to his finger which had been severely cut by a knife on the edge-trimming machine. For John was an edge trimmer, working in a non-union shop at a weekly wage of \$18.00 during busy seasons, with lay-offs during stock-taking and between seasons of dullness at the factory.

He thought of the way he was giving his life, his existence, his brain and physical strength, for the benefit of his employer, and the feeling surged through him that all his powers were his own by Divine right. With bitterness he reflected that he was selling his very life and soul for the price of a dollar, without any hope of greater reward or independence after years of ceaseless toil. He felt that all his fellow-workers were helpless against the unseen power of the grinding wheels which rang in his ears from the rafters

of the shop over his bench. Why was it not his common right to demand justice and a just reward for the services he was selling to the profit of the great business, of which he was only a small incident, a machine which could be thrown out at a moment's notice and replaced with a new one? He had never personally met the owner of the factory, which distributed shoes to every part of the world, but he had seen him drive up to the office in his automobile, and had wondered if he had any sick daughters. He knew that his own daughter could be sent away for a trip to the country by the rich owner of the factory if he chose to do so.

As John neared the factory he noticed a crowd outside talking in angry groups, and reaching the shelter of the brick wall, he was accosted by the leader, who exclaimed, "There's a strike on, John; no work today."

"What's the cause of the trouble?" he inquired.

"We believe in uniting and organizing for protection for a uniform wage scale and for better factory conditions. It is our common right."

"Yes, I agree with you, but what will become of us until we are organized and we can settle with the manufacturer?"

"You will have to get along the best you can. We hold our first meeting tonight at Chatham Hall. Be sure to come, and remember there is to be no violence."

John made his way wearily home, out of work, starvation staring him in the face, his wages of Saturday night already gone to pay the food bills and rent (none for dissipation, as John never drank). As he entered the gate, which was almost buried in snow, he wondered how he could break the news to his wife, Mary.

The week following was a sad one for the Porter family. Jane was laid off in a few days on account of the closing of the stitching room, and it was only after visiting all the stores that she finally found a temporary position in a candy store on Market Street. Her mother worked late into the night at extra needle work, but John was unable to find

a position, as many of the shoe factories were reducing help before stock-taking.

The first meeting of the strikers was held at Chatham Hall, workmen from the different departments gathering to discuss ways and means for betterment of working conditions, more sanitary surroundings, better light, and more protection from machines, but above all to consider the matter of payment for work. A living wage-scale was drawn up as applying to various departments throughout the factory. Different speakers expressed their views, giving reasons for opposition to conditions which made a calling-out of the men necessary. John was called upon to give his views on the work in his department. He stated he had worked for a number of years as an edge trimmer on a weekly basis, but that no increase had been granted and in his opinion none ever would be. He had approached the foreman asking for a piece price, but was refused. He knew that on a wage basis of two cents per pair he would be in a position to produce better work and more shoes, which would increase the profits of the business as well as enlarge the field of the company. He stated that there was no established standard wage-scale for work in the factory, but by uniting the workmen could bring into existence an organization or union which would benefit both employer and employe.

Two weeks were taken up by the men in perfecting their plans, the factory meanwhile remaining closed. The owner made several attempts to get the men back at work and also to replace them with new men, but without success for the fight was to be carried to the bitter end. The factory salesmen on the road had been reading in the papers accounts of the strike and were beginning to send in large orders for immediate delivery. Telegrams began to reach the manufacturer stating that unless orders were filled, they would be cancelled. It became necessary to compromise with the workmen and start the wheels of the factory.

An open meeting was set for Saturday evening at which the owner agreed to meet the leaders of the strikers and bring about a settlement, if possible. Police were stationed outside Chatham Hall to quell any disturbance. As early as seven o'clock the hall began to fill. The meeting was called to order by the mayor of the city, who spoke on the great suffering which had come to the workers through the closing down of the plant, and the loss to the city by families which would move to other places if the strike continued. He also spoke of loss to the manufacturer on cancelled orders and dissatisfied customers, as well as injury to other shoe industries in the city caused by newspaper reports of labor troubles. He told of ten manufacturers who had moved away from the city during the past few years, taking millions in payroll to other communities, and closed by pleading with both parties to consider the interests of each other and to come to a settlement that night.

The first speaker for the firm was the president, who expressed pleasure at being able to present in person the facts from the manufacturer's standpoint. He said he believed in unions of shoe workers on lines of co-operation and justice, but did not approve of lock-outs and closing down of a plant without fair warning being given as well as chance for settlement and compromise. He claimed the men were mistaken in their statements that unsanitary conditions existed and lives were in danger from machines, and asked for facts in proof. He explained that wages were as high as the grade of shoes would stand, and it would be impossible to pay more on any part of the work. He hoped that the men would go back to their positions, so that the orders in the factory might be completed and new ones accepted.

His remarks were not received with enthusiasm, but on the contrary the men expressed signs of dissatisfaction. They felt that their wrongs were not to be recognized or corrected, and as it was their turn to express themselves, their spokesman, John Porter, rose to his feet. There was a

deathlike silence. The first words he uttered were, "We demand our rights. We are human beings and not machines. Why should we be expected to work at the bench as slaves, and then when we drop from exhaustion, receive no recognition of our wrongs? Only two weeks ago James Carlton, working as a rough rounder, was injured by a defective machine and was taken to the hospital." He stated that wages had not been advanced for over two years, and that the men had organized a union and a schedule of prices which were ready for presentation. In closing, he spoke of his sick daughter Anne, who would die unless she was sent to the country. The men were ready to go back to work, but it would have to be a union shop.

Other men spoke, and the meeting then adjourned, with a promise from the president that he would meet representatives of the newly organized union at his factory the next day.

About a week more elapsed before a final settlement on a compromise basis was arrived at and the doors of the factory opened as a union shop. An increase of wages was granted, and in a short time Anne was sent to the country, for her father had won the right to earn a fair livelihood according to his efforts.

WHAT LYNN NEEDS.

A consolidation of the unions of Lynn under one head, in my opinion, would benefit the shoe industry of the city. The city with the smallest number of unions is always the most successful, and consolidation of Lynn unions would be the first step in the right direction.

Settlement of labor disputes by the State board of arbitration and conciliation is beyond doubt a fair way of deciding differences between employer and employe which cannot be adjusted by a local board.* Orders once placed in Lynn

* Extract from *Lynn Item*, November, 1913.

by some of the largest shoe retailers in the country but now given to other shoe centers could easily be secured again. It is a fact that several hundred shoe manufacturers have moved away, taking thousands of dollars in payroll from the city. The highest grade women's shoes are made in Philadelphia and Brooklyn, N. Y., whereas they could be made in Lynn. Many Lynn manufacturers have not been in a position to fill orders through local difficulties. A few manufacturers had a "peace pact" with certain unions, but most of them did not, because there is such a large number of unions, it is impossible to control the situation satisfactorily. The objections to the State board offered by the worker seem to be that reduction in wages will result, but facts do not prove this. The real questions which Lynn must answer are:—

1. Why do shoe retailers buy shoes in other cities?
2. Why have manufacturers moved away to Boston, Haverhill, and Everett and increased their business? (Five manufacturers who have left are doing one-half the total Lynn business of 1913.)
3. Why has it been necessary for a large number of shoemakers to locate in other shoe centers?
4. Why has the earning capacity of those retaining positions in many cases been decreased 10 and 20 per cent.?
5. Why is it that other shoe manufacturers have not moved to Lynn during the past two or more years?
6. Why has Lynn dropped to third place in 1915?

These are questions of vital interest to the future of Lynn as a manufacturing city, a city of homes, and a retail city. There must be co-operation between both parties for peace and prosperity. Until employer and employe have an arbitration board and a peace contract on the right basis, and the manufacturers can go out in the open market and sell their product and deliver orders on agreement, the tide will not turn in the history of Lynn's shoe industry. With

an unbiased arbitration board, Lynn will have more factories, increased business, higher wages, with better grades of shoes selling in the big cities.

The following is a peace agreement which was constructed by the Board of Directors of the Industrial Bureau of the Lynn Chamber of Commerce at the time I served as Chairman, and which was considered and agreed upon by a majority of Lynn manufacturers as the only agreement possible in order to place the shoe industry of Lynn on a firm foundation for the future of the city.

SECTION 1. The articles of agreement by and between....., hereinafter called the union, and the firm of....., hereinafter called the manufacturer, shall be binding upon both parties in the manner hereinafter outlined.

SEC. 2. The union agrees that during the life of this agreement it will not institute, encourage, or in any other way sanction a strike of its members in that part of the factory of the manufacturer covered by this agreement for any reason whatsoever.

SEC. 3. The manufacturer agrees, in consideration of the advantages contained in Section 2, that there shall be no lock-out during the life of this agreement in that part of the factory covered by this agreement.

SEC. 4. The union and the manufacturer agree, in consideration of the benefits to be derived jointly and severally by them from this agreement, that any differences that may arise which cannot be mutually adjusted between them shall be referred to a local board of adjustment, upon either party giving notice to the other calling for the appointment of such board. This board shall be composed of five members; two to be appointed by each of the two parties to this agreement within seven days from the receipt of the call for such board, the fifth member to be selected by the other four, but if they fail so to select and to secure the fifth member within seven days from receipt of the call for the board, the executive committee of the Lynn Chamber of Commerce shall select the fifth member, who shall, in that case, be a non-resident of the city of Lynn.

SEC. 5. The decision of the local board of adjustment shall be made within 14 days after its organization, unless an extension of time is agreed upon between the parties hereto, and this decision shall become effective and binding upon both parties to the agreement at the expiration of seven days from the date of decision, unless written notice to the contrary, by either party to the other, is theretofore given.

SEC. 6. In case the decision of the local board of adjustment given as outlined in Section 5, is rejected by either party in the manner set forth in said section, the matter in dispute shall forthwith be submitted to the Massachusetts State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration for settlement, and its decision shall be binding upon both parties, in accordance with the rules of the said State board; and its decision shall become effective from the time the matter in dispute was presented to the local board for adjustment.

SEC. 7. The manufacturer agrees that this agreement shall cover work done in the organized departments of the factory where the employees are members of the union that is party to this contract.

SEC. 8. The manufacturer agrees not to offer any opposition to employees joining the union, provided, however, that the work of soliciting employees for membership be done outside of shop hours. This agreement is not to be construed in any sense as an obligation on the manufacturer to compel employees to join the union.

SEC. 9. The union, being a voluntary organization, agrees to use only moral suasion in obtaining members, and shall not in any way penalize new or former members who may be secured.

SEC. 10. This agreement shall go into effect immediately upon being signed by the two parties hereto, and shall continue in effect until July 1, 1916, and thereafter from year to year, unless either party shall give to the other party a notice in writing at least 60 days prior to July 1, 1916, or prior to the same date in any year following, that it desires not to renew this agreement, in which case it shall expire on the July 1st next thereafter.

There was a manufacturers' association in Lynn which existed for a number of years. P. J. Harney was President for much of the time and H. W. Sawyer was Secretary. Various local matters were taken up from time to time, but co-operation in important matters never existed among the members and the association decreased in numbers until only about 30 or 40 remained at the time they voted to affiliate with the Chamber of Commerce in 1914, thereafter ceasing to exist as a separate organization.

A study of conditions has shown me that it is most difficult to organize the Lynn shoe manufacturers, the spirit of true friendship and co-operation seemingly being non-existent there. Each man considers his neighbor a rival in business who is putting something over on the other fellow.

In any successful organization the members must be loyal to each other and stand by its platform, principles, and by-laws. A small organization at first is most desirable, with gradual growth. Also, closer relationship must exist between the employer and employe. A mutual study of local conditions and requirements will bring both into closer harmony. Many manufacturers believe that the workers are always in the wrong, and so their idea is always to drive the best possible bargain with labor, which has proven to be a fatal mistake for both interested parties. Furthermore, the manufacturers of Lynn should work unitedly together giving their assistance to the smaller ones. Any plan which is of benefit to one should be supported by all the others, and no manufacturer should adopt a wage scale on a certain grade of shoes unless it can be adopted by all other manufacturers making the same grades of shoes. What is of benefit for one is desirable for others and for the city's prosperity at large.



CHAPTER VII.

ORGANIZATION OF SHOE MANUFACTURERS.

industry in the United States to have begun in Salem, where Edward and Isaac Rickerman settled coming on the Mayflower on her voyage. They were shoemakers by the earliest on record in this country. The pioneer shoemaker was Philip

Kirtland, who settled in Lynn in 1636 and became so successful as an instructor and a producer in the trade that 15 years later he was largely supplying Boston's demand for shoes, employing in his home shop a number of journeymen "cordwainers," known as shoemakers. He instructed others, who took up the work in Salem and adjacent towns. In Boston, James Everell built up a large business in making shoes to order, employing and teaching journeymen for nearly 50 years. A contemporary in the same trade was William Copp, in North Boston, after whom Copp's Hill was named. The rapid growth in importance of this distinctive New England industry is shown by the incorporation by the general court, as early as 1648, of the "Boston Company of Shoemakers."

For 100 years after its establishment in America shoe-making retained the methods which were in use for centuries in Europe. The shoemaker at his bench cut with a knife the upper and sole leather from the hide, stitched the upper with awl and waxed end, hammered the sole on a lapstone, and sewed it on by hand, turning out a complete shoe with few tools other than hammer, awl, knife, and the wooden shoulder stick with which he finished the edges.

Shoemaking as an industry, from its humble beginnings in the first half of the seventeenth century, has become one of the largest of all industries in the United States, according to the census of 1910, employing 185,000 people with an invested capital of nearly \$200,000,000. Massachusetts alone employed in the year 1911 an average number of 80,000 workers, representing nearly half of the total number for the country at large. If to these figures are added workers employed in the closely allied boot and shoe stock and shoe-findings trades, we have a total of nearly 90,000. The first shoe-producing State has maintained her supremacy for nearly three hundred years. Throughout two of these centuries women have been closely connected with the industry, and statistics of interest will be given in this Chapter.

A census taken in Massachusetts in 1837 showed 15,366 women were employed in boot and shoe factories, while only 1,475 women were in cotton mills. Most of the women in the shoe industry did their work at home and not in shops. In the seaboard towns of Massachusetts women worked at stitching and binding shoes, while men were on the fishing grounds; but during the stormy days of winter the whole family made the finished product at home.

The importance of the boot and shoe industry in Massachusetts has been stated. Of the number employed, 35 per cent., or nearly 28,000, were women and girls, a greater number than is employed at any other factory trade, except the textile industries.

In the 40 years before the Civil War in 1861, the gain in numbers of women shoe workers was rapid. Not only in the Revolution but in the Civil War army shoes were made in Massachusetts by women who, being compelled to live on the scanty pay sent home from their men in the army, stitched shoes destined for husbands and brothers in the field. The habit of working in the shoe factory was not broken by the close of the war. In 1870 20 per cent. of the shoe workers in Massachusetts were women and girls; in

1900 this had grown to nearly 32 per cent. In the past ten or twelve years, though there has been a large growth in actual numbers, the proportion of women shows little increase. In six of the North Shore towns, Lynn, Salem, Beverly, Marblehead, Peabody, Newburyport, and Danvers, there were about 165 shoe factories making the completed shoe with an average of 19,000 operatives in the year 1911. Peabody had but one shoe factory, but three cut stock factories and many tanning factories, employing some 4,000 persons. More women work at shoemaking than at any other trade except textile industries, and the effect upon a community is far reaching.

The latter part of the seventeenth century ushered in the beginnings of the factory system. "Shoes being made by the size, the constant complaint was that sizes were unfairly marked; no two shoemakers had the same measure. William Newman of Stamford, Conn., had a measuring stick which he had brought from England, which it was decided by the general court was a fair standard. Simple as this would seem, it worked a revolution in the business. Once a standard of sizes was fixed upon, individual orders and measures were no longer depended upon solely, but enterprising shoemakers began to make up a stock of shoes. By 1700 the more enterprising had gathered groups of workmen around them and began what would be fairly called the manufacture of boots and shoes. The entire shoe was made under one roof, but no longer by one man." In Randolph, Abington, Holbrook, and Quincy in the Old Colony; in Lynn, Salem, Topsfield, Georgetown, and Haverhill in Essex County; in Stoneham, Reading, and Marlboro in Middlesex County; and in Milford, Brookfield, and Spencer in Worcester County, shoemakers hired a few men and gathered them into what was then called a shop; some cutting the leather, others fitting or sewing the uppers together, and still others putting the uppers and soles together, or "bottoming" them, in much the same fashion as that used when each shoemaker worked individually.

This partial division of labor was a success at once, and soon the uppers were sent out to women and children to be stitched together and bound. Little "eight by ten" shops were scattered all through the "South Shore," as Plymouth County was then termed, as well as through Essex, Middlesex, and Worcester counties. The shoemaker with his sons, and perhaps a neighbor, made a "team" which took the fitted uppers and the under-stock from the manufacturer in a nearby town and bottomed the shoes or boots. One did the lasting, another the pegging (the boys and sometimes the girls were taught this branch), another the trimming, and still another the edge setting, but all was done by hand. When the shoes were made, they were taken to the factory which, although considered at that time a wonder, was little larger than the offices of some of our modern establishments. Here they were finished, packed in wooden boxes, and sent to the market.

Lynn soon became the center of this system and sent out the cut parts of shoes to small shops throughout Massachusetts to be made up, paying the cutters and other skilled workers 60 to 75 cents a day. The heels were wooden; the soles were sometimes fastened with copper brads, but usually were sewed, the heavier ones welted, the lighter ones turned. By 1754 the piece price had risen to 60 cents a pair and wages by the week were \$3.25. This, however, was probably for the less skilled operators. In 1795 Lynn had 200 master shoemakers and 600 journeymen and apprentices. Their combined output was 300,000 pairs of women's shoes a year.

In 1915 the wages were raised to 25 cents an hour on women's help and 40 cents an hour for men's. Cutters secured \$25.00 a week throughout the city on all grades of shoes.

Lynn is recognized as one of the oldest shoemaking cities of the country. In its early history the manufacture of shoes became the leading industry. Edmund Bridges and Philip Kirtland were the first Lynn shoemakers. They

settled in "Lin" in 1635, six years after Beard, Rickerman, and Hewson, the first American shoemakers, came to Plymouth and Salem. Beard was also a blacksmith, and when trade was slack in his shop, he took his shoemaker's kit and went among the colonists looking for work. In 1750 John Adam Dogyn, seeing the great possibilities in making shoes in America, established himself in Lynn as a shoemaker. Buying the best shoes in the home and foreign markets and dissecting them, taking each part by itself and studying carefully its construction, he began making shoes from his own ideas, correcting the faults and improving on the merits until at last he produced the best shoes in the country. Other shoemakers all over America came to Lynn to study his methods of shoemaking, and he taught all those who came to him to such an extent that he neglected his own business and he died in the almshouse. It was a sad ending, but he was the means of starting a business that none had been able to equal in any other city up to that time.

As already stated, the shoemaker up to the time of the Civil War worked in small, ten-foot shops, his wife bound the shoes for him, and his sons were his apprentices. But when the Civil War came, many shoemakers left their work and accepted the call for volunteers. The scarcity of workmen made wages higher, but the introduction of machinery equalized matters and the manufactured increase of shoes soon became much greater. The introduction of the McKay machine proved of great value in shoemaking, cheapening the cost of production and increasing the output. The Hon. Peter Neal, who was Mayor of Lynn, told President Lincoln of the wonderful machine and that it sewed around the soles of a shoe in sixteen seconds. Lincoln was surprised and predicted that it would draw the shoe industry from farms and country towns into cities and big factories, and it did. The McKay machine was first tried in Lynn, as were several of the other important sewing machines.

When, in 1846, Elias Howe of Boston invented the sewing machine, he doubtless had in mind relief for the busy housewife, but some years later his invention was utilized in the shoemaking shops for the stitching of uppers. The various processes of shoemaking were now for the first time gathered under one roof, and the "factory system," as applied to this particular manufacture, was complete. The heavy machines, worked by foot, or sometimes by horsepower, could be managed only by men. This fact for a time threw women out of the industry, since the work on uppers, for more than a century largely turned over to them, was now done in the factory by men.

An invention of much importance, produced in Lynn by J. W. Matzeliger, was a machine for lasting shoes. The inventor was a McKay operator in Harney Bros.' factory and a born machinist. Hearing the lasters boast that no machine could be invented to do their work, and seeing that a large amount of labor could be saved by lasting shoes with a machine, he went to work in a small room over a cigar store, working day and night to perfect his machine, even picking up pieces of wood and cigar boxes in the streets to help make his model, depriving himself meanwhile of the necessities of life. His fellow-workmen laughed at his efforts, but he persevered until his first model was built, although it proved to be a failure. His second one brought an offer of \$50.00, and his third even less than that. While working on a fourth model he died of consumption brought on by his hard work. These machines and several others brought on labor troubles. A workman who used to do many parts now does only one small part in the process of shoe making, and with the exception of cutting, hand sewing, and, on fine shoes, hand lasting, all parts are done on machines.

The growth of Lynn shoe industries has been remarkably great. From a small beginning it has increased until in 1899 the boot and shoe industry, including cut stock and findings, was valued at \$24,981,631, and in 1910 at

\$46,659,709. More than \$140,000 weekly, or \$7,600,000 per year, is distributed in wages under present conditions. The tendency of wages has been to advance, and during the busy seasons skilled help has been insufficient to supply the demand.

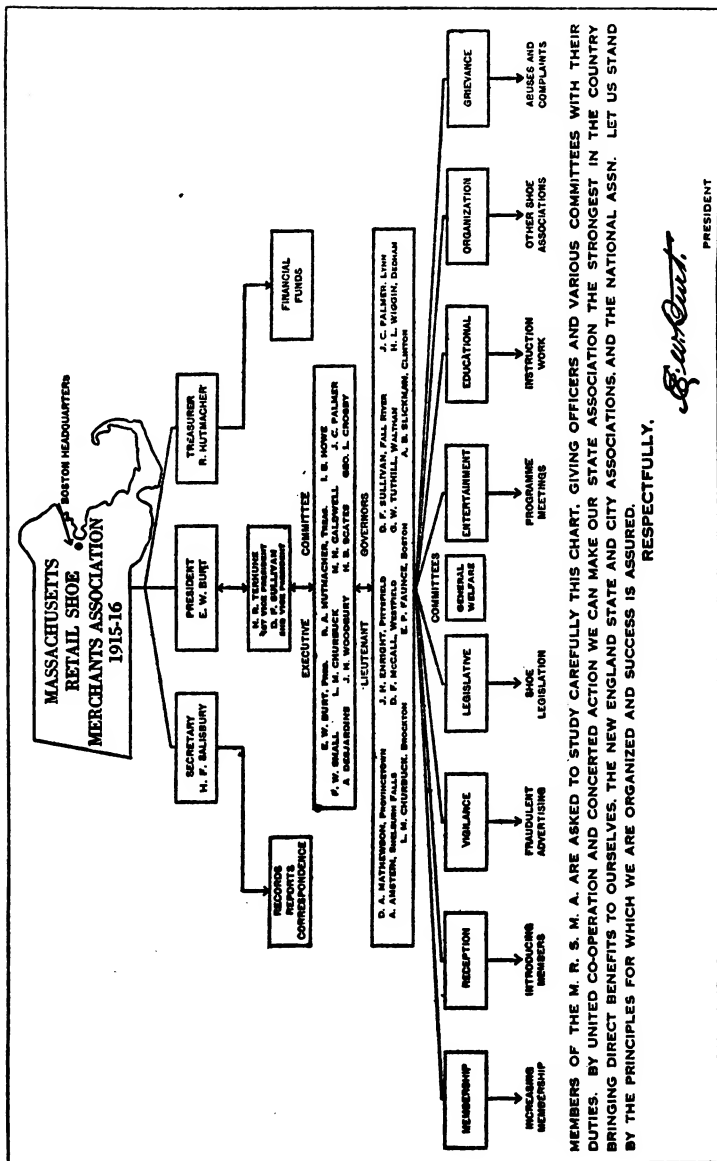
In 1911 there were about 200 shoe manufacturers in Lynn, employing some 32,000 workers, of whom about 40 per cent. were women. The number of factories has decreased, through failure and moving away, until in 1915 there were 88 left and in 1916 only 80. The total output Lynn shoes in various years is as follows:—

1907\$32,892,280	1913\$33,907,687
1912\$35,000,000	1914\$33,077,000

The total output Haverhill shoes shows the following:—

1907\$17,500,000	1913\$27,500,000
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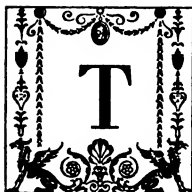
The growth in factories manufacturing shoes in Lynn, from 1893 to 1915, is interesting. In 1893 there were 154 factories. During the period from 1893 to 1913, twenty years, 448 concerns started the manufacture of shoes, and had all survived there would have been a total of 602. But as only 103 remained in 1913, there is shown a death rate of about 26 each year during the 20 year period. Statistics show labor to have advanced in Lynn 8.9 per cent. during the seven years previous to 1916.





CHAPTER VIII.

ORGANIZATION OF SHOE RETAILERS.



HE history of the birth and growth of the Boston Retail Shoe Merchants Association, and later of the Massachusetts Retail Shoe Merchants Association and other New England States shoe associations, will be outlined in this chapter, with a partial history of the National Shoe Retailers Association.

Organization of shoe retailers is not for the elimination of the weak and the uniting of the strong, nor is it for the benefit of the large merchant alone, but for the many and for the uniting of all shoe merchants in friendship, mutual co-operation, and assistance.

The first meeting of the Boston Shoe Merchants Association was held in Boston Nov. 9, 1911, at the Boston City Club, 15 men attending. The association was organized and the following were elected charter members.

W. W. Willson
J. H. Woodbury
J. Fischer
W. G. Lewis
H. B. Scates
I. B. Howe
J. F. McNeil
F. L. Jones

E. W. Howe
H. E. Hagan
F. W. Small
E. W. Burt
M. E. Tucker
C. H. Peterson
F. J. McMorro

The following were elected officers: I. B. Howe (Walk-Over Shoe), President; Burke Rivers (Hanan & Son), Secretary; E. W. Burt (E. W. Burt & Co.), Treasurer. Annual dues were fixed at \$10.00. Trade papers were accorded representation as associate members, without votes or dues.

Meetings were held nine times a year, including dinners. The Constitution and By-Laws were adopted (see appendix I, with amendments) and committees appointed, with E. W. Burt as Chairman of the Membership Committee.

The principles of the Boston Association were outlined as follows:—

A STATEMENT OF PRINCIPLES.
BOSTON RETAIL SHOE MERCHANTS' ASSOCIATION.

(Printed 1914.)

1. To foster the retail shoe trade and promote a higher standard among its members engaged in retailing in Boston and Massachusetts.
2. To secure freedom from unlawful and burdensome abuses affecting the shoe business.
3. To protect an enlarged and friendly intercourse between its members through sociability, and to draw closer together the legitimate shoe merchants.
4. To protect its members from unscrupulous and dishonest employees.
5. To encourage and help all to be better retailers through organization work.
6. To co-operate with all who desire the welfare of the shoe trade in Massachusetts, in particular, and the United States as a whole.
7. To help salesmen to become more efficient.
8. To co-operate with the shoe manufacturer for the study of methods that will extend mutual benefits to the factory and the retailer.
9. To disseminate beneficial information among our members, resulting from committee work and discussion in open meetings.
10. To devise ways and means to render better service to our customers at a legitimate net profit, believing that we profit as we serve.
11. To protect the public and the shoe merchants from untruthful and fraudulent advertising and to give our assistance to enforcing the Massachusetts advertising law.
12. To inform our members how to conduct their business on lines of economy and saving, pointing out how expenses can be controlled for the benefit of the business and the public.
13. To educate our members to sell better grades of footwear and raise the standard of merchandise.
14. To plan out ways of conducting successfully hosiery, findings, and repair departments in connection with shoe stores.
15. To oppose legislation by special committees, protesting against unjust and injurious bills which will not benefit the people and the shoe industry of the country.

16. To co-operate and work with the Boston Chamber of Commerce in matters of importance to the retail shoe trade of Boston and the State.

17. To use our best efforts to build up the National organization, who look to us for support and assistance as representing the Massachusetts retailers.

18. To extend an open hand to retailers coming to Boston from other States, inviting them to our stores and doing all in our power to make their visits pleasant and profitable.

19. Our watchword is "The Brotherhood of Shoe Men."

E. W. BURT, President.

W. W. WILLSON, Secretary.

The first constructive work of the Boston Association was to secure new members, and the Committee appointed covered the city to secure managers, proprietors, and buyers of all legitimate shoe stores in the city, until at the end of the first year the membership had doubled.

The second year of the Association (1913), was a particularly active one. A change of officers elected E. W. Burt President, W. W. Willson Secretary, and E. W. Howe Treasurer. Members were admitted from other Massachusetts cities and towns, and at the close of the year 1913 the Association numbered about 50.

During that year the following work was accomplished:—

BOSTON RETAIL SHOE MERCHANTS' ASSOCIATION.

President Burt's Report for the Year Ending November, 1913.

1. Increase of membership for the year, 31.
2. Increase of funds in the treasury.
3. Adopted a plan of mutual fire insurance among the members.
4. Investigated and adopted ways and means to eliminate the greatest abuse in the retail shoe business and unjust claims demanded by customers on worn shoes.

5. Instructed members how to make a profit on rubbers.
6. Educated our members to sell lines of footwear allowing a greater margin of profit.
7. Defeated the "Oldfield Pure Shoe" bill in the Massachusetts Legislature.
8. Pointed out why the sale of lace shoes was more profitable than button shoes.
9. Opposed wholesale rubber houses selling rubbers at retail, which worked out successfully.
10. Appointed a committee for salesmen efficiency for the shoe clerks of Boston.
11. Assisted the Boston Chamber of Commerce to organize the Advertising Vigilance Association, putting in ten members from our Association.
12. Movement started for a State-wide organization.
13. Investigated the shoe repairing situation in Boston.
14. Committee appointed to establish early closing hours during the summer months which was carried out successfully.
15. Sent a delegation to the Convention of National Shoe Retailers' Association in New York.

Constructive work was begun for the benefit of our members, as shown by the following extract from letters sent out by the Boston Retail Shoe Merchants' Association:—

1. Do you charge customers for wear on returned shoes?
2. Is your stock turning less than three times a year?
3. Have you difficulty in securing competent clerks?
4. Are you carrying too many shoes on large and small sizes?

5. Are you selling more Kid and Calf shoes than Patent and Tan?
6. What pays the most profit, Hosiery or Repair Department?
7. What do you consider the greatest abuse in the retail shoe business?

Eighty per cent. of the retailers stated that the greatest abuse was claims demanded by customers for worn shoes, and our members adopted a policy of charging \$1.00 per month for wear on shoes, believing that free wear on footwear was not justified or warranted in the retail shoe business.

The same officers of the Boston Association were elected for a second term for the year 1914 and the work was continued with more energy. The President's report of the year ending 1914 showed the following:—

Joint Convention of the Boston Retail Shoe Merchants' Association and the National Shoe Retailers' Association at the New England Shoe and Leather Fair in July.

Reorganization of the Boston Retail Shoe Merchants' Association into a State association under the title of Massachusetts Retail Shoe Merchants' Association.

Outline of a plan devised by E. W. Burt for organization of the New England States into separate State associations of shoe retailers.

The Convention of the Boston Retail Shoe Merchants' Association jointly with the National Shoe Retailers' Association was held at the New England Shoe and Leather Market Fair, and was a remarkable demonstration of retail organization. Attending retailers came from all parts of the country and discussed problems of vital interest to the trade with notable speakers and guests. Nearly 500 to 800 retailers attended. The trade papers co-operated heartily in assuring the success of the Convention.

A MASSACHUSETTS WELCOME.

By E. W. BURT.

[President of the Massachusetts Retail Shoe Merchants' Association.]

Under the banner of organization and the watch-words of "good-fellowship" and "progress," the Massachusetts Retail Shoe Merchants' Association extends to all visiting retail shoemen a royal welcome to Boston and the Shoe and Leather Market Fair.

You are the honored guests of our State, our city, and the Massachusetts retail shoe merchants. We are your brother retailers in the trade and, following the first principles of our organization, we extend to you greetings and friendship.

Co-operation and organization of shoe merchants has raised the merchandising of shoes to a higher standard. By these principles we have become better buyers and better sellers, and our business has passed from a condition of uncertainty to one of confidence on the part of both merchant and public. Backed by the organization of dealers throughout the country, honesty in advertising has educated the public to "real value in shoes," and separated the legitimate from the dishonest merchant. Many shoe merchants who had been unable to adjust their business to the changing conditions in the trade have, through the work of the National Shoe Retailers' Association and the numerous State and local associations, become live, prosperous and successful men.

Every one of the thirty thousand or more shoe retailers in the United States should do his part by giving generously of his support and assistance to those who are working to elevate the standard of shoe merchandising. The big men of broad ideas always find time for this great constructive work. Every member of the scores of shoe associations that cover the country has become greater in power and strength, a happier and more progressive merchant whose business is on a higher plane, whose customers are receiving better

shoes and more efficient service, and who has become a "real" merchant with definite ideas and principles to guide him, all resulting from the work of co-operation and organization.

At the May meeting of the Association, a resolution was presented to change the Constitution and By-Laws, dissolving the Boston City Association and organizing a Massachusetts State body. Notices were sent out in conformity with the By-Laws.

The resolution was voted upon finally by the members of the organization at the June meeting. It required a two-thirds vote to ratify the amendment to comply with the State laws, and it was found at the meeting that there were three votes short of a quorum, but our attorney who attended the meeting said that votes on the telephone would be legal, so by calling up three members we secured their approval, and at eleven-thirty P. M. the meeting adjourned, after a unanimous vote had created a State organization of shoe retailers, the first one in New England.

HOW THE MASSACHUSETTS RETAIL SHOE MERCHANTS' ASSOCIATION WAS ORGANIZED AND BUILT UP.

In order to have a clear understanding of the amount of work involved in organizing the Massachusetts Association of State Retailers it is necessary first of all to consider the greatest obstacles which had to be overcome before there was any hope of success. Let us consider them in their order of importance.

1. Membership.
2. Enthusiasm and interest.
3. Attendance at meetings.
4. Active and progressive committees.
5. Actual results.
6. Dues.

After having built up successfully an organization of Boston city retailers, composed of all the legitimate shoe stores and department shoe store dealers, our association realized that it would be necessary for us to widen our field and take in members from surrounding towns and other cities throughout the State, otherwise we should in a short space of time cease to be an organization.

Our records showed that out of a membership of about fifty, which covered the city, about one-half attended our monthly meetings only once or twice a year, interest began to decrease, and our organization was controlled by a few active men, with the result that future growth looked very doubtful.

1. To State members, living at a distance, who could not come regularly to the meetings, the greatest problem was to prove the direct value to them of belonging to a State-wide organization, showing the benefits which they would receive and the returns for the dues which to many had been repaid many times over during the course of a year. The way to be a successful merchant, in any mercantile business, is to keep at the front at all times. Business methods are constantly changing and new ideas and systems must be instituted if the merchant is to continue successfully in business. It was the duty of our association to tell its members the best way to be successful. Monthly reports were issued by our secretary and mailed regularly to every member. These reports contained information of the greatest value and outlined the work of our committees appointed to investigate and decide ways and means of solving problems in the retail shoe business. One of our plans was to send to members the printed report issued by the Harvard College School of Business Administration, outlining the system used by leading shoe stores throughout the country. Another committee report explained how to secure fire insurance with a twenty-five per cent. dividend policy, and still another report outlined the shoe-repairing situation, giving figures worth hundreds of dollars to any retailer.

Notification of all shoe legislation of injury to the business was received in time for their action. If it was impossible for them to attend any meetings, the information received by mail was sufficient reason for belonging to our association. The prestige of belonging to a State organization should not be overlooked by members of an association.

2. Enthusiasm and interest was the life of all our meetings. Without that failure would result, and it was necessary to bring before the association matters of such vital interest to our business that live discussions were in order at every meeting. There was work for everyone to do and it was carried through successfully and quickly. The business rules were strict and forceful, and the By-Laws lived up to. Members were invited and urged to bring their problems before the meeting, and everyone had a voice and a vote upon every question.

3. As stated before, personal attendance at meetings was one of the most serious problems. Many men were unable to attend certain nights in the week, others lacking interest stayed away, but I have yet to see one member who had attended a meeting who didn't say he got his money's worth of valuable information and real social enjoyment. We invited as our guests famous men in all lines of business and well-known political men, who came and delivered addresses on LIVE business topics of State and national interest. Every man considered it an honor to meet these guests personally and hear their interesting and instructive speeches. At every meeting a dinner was served, included with the price of annual dues.

4. The motto of our organization was written in red letters—"Be Alive." Men were selected who wanted to work and were interested in the success of the organization. They were put on committees which covered all subjects—membership, reception, entertainment, legislative, insurance, repair work, rubbers, and many others. The chairman of each committee was ready with his report at each meeting. If he could not attend, he appointed a substitute who gave

the report in his place. If the committee appointed failed to make good, it was dissolved and a new one appointed.

The leading merchants were selected in every city and town in the State to act as delegates representing their local district. Their duty was to confer with the association regarding all matters of interest to the shoe business. This resulted in co-operation and assistance from all parts of the State and added great strength to the organization as a whole.

5. In order to grow in numbers and strength actual results had to be accomplished through the work of the organization. Affiliation with the National Body was of importance, for federation meant representation at national headquarters. All acts of our organization would be recognized and voted upon by the main body.

Reports presented by our committees and endorsed by the organization, such as early closing hours, dates for mark-down sales, discounts, allowances, etc., must be lived up to by each member, if they were to be of any real value. Complaints presented by members at various meetings must be worked out and solved by our committees. Honest advertising laws must be lived up to by all our members, and bills before Congress and legislative committees be taken care of by committees appointed at various times. The greatest help should be given to weaker members of the organization so that they might become prosperous and successful merchants.

6. The question of annual dues was determined by membership and attendance at meetings. The greatest amount of dues for any State or city shoe association was placed at \$3 to \$5 and in case of the national organization, where a large percentage of the members do not attend, dues were to be graded as shown. A dinner could be served at the monthly meetings, at the above figures, and after deducting current expenses sufficient funds would be on hand at all times to run the organization.

In conclusion, let the organization be constructed on a broad plan, with fair dealing for everyone. Never overlook the small details of the work, and at the close of each meeting have the work finished and the records cleared. Remember organizations founded on friendship will last forever.

At the annual meeting of the Massachusetts Association in November, 1914, the following officers were elected for the year 1915: W. W. WILLSON, President; H. R. TERHUNE, Secretary; R. HUTMACHER, Treasurer.

The retiring president, E. W. Burt, originated a plan to organize all the New England States into associations, which was completed during 1915 and is outlined further on.

During 1915 the work progressed rapidly, increasing the membership to about 110. A large convention was given, inviting shoe retailers from the New England States. It was held jointly with the Boston Boot and Shoe Club.

At the annual election in November, 1915, the nominating committee proposed again the name of E. W. Burt, and on a ballot vote he was elected president by 55 out of 60 votes cast.

The first work of importance taken up by the newly-elected president was to construct a pamphlet for the use of members and other shoe retailers at large, for the education of the public, and for instructions to salesmen in adjusting complaints and making satisfactory settlement on worn shoes. Two months were devoted to this work and 12 rules were finally approved and accepted by the Association as a body. The members attending the meeting at which final ratification was passed, placed orders for 100,000 pamphlets for use in their own stores. This is the first movement ever made by any shoe association to establish a standard code of ethics for the retail shoe business, and it will bring untold benefit to the trade. A copy of the pamphlet is given in a chapter all its own entitled, "Through the Association to the Public."

The second movement for betterment of the retail shoe business was a meeting called by the President on March 12, 1916, at the Boston City Club, consisting of a banquet and convention of the M. R. S. M. A. and the Boston Retail Shoe Salesmen's Association, on the following platform:

"The successful shoe merchant and the successful shoe salesman, to become efficient, must believe in and practice co-operation through organization."

The convention was a success in every way. Over 350 attended, with ten speakers and guests. Salesmen from all the stores of Boston and from other localities attended and a spirit of co-operation was awakened between the merchant and the salesmen, something never before thought possible in the retailing of shoes. It was a movement to assist the work of the salesmen's association, outlined in a following chapter.



CHAPTER IX.

ORGANIZATION OF THE NATIONAL SHOE RETAILERS' ASSOCIATION.



IN the year 1916 there were about 45,000 shoe merchants in the United States, employing some 100,000 salesmen. These stores retail annually a billion dollars' worth of shoes, or an average of \$23,000 for each store, including department stores. Twenty per cent. sell more than \$100,000 worth a year, so that 80 per cent. of the entire retail shoe business is done by small dealers. It can readily be seen that a retailer must find it extremely difficult to exist on a business based on \$20,000 yearly sales, especially when he is acting independently and without the help or assistance of other retailers, or through retail associations.

Men in the same line of business in cities and towns did not know each other, but were often bitter competitors, whose ambition was to drive the other man out of business. Under these conditions it was impossible to bring about reforms and improvements, and the shoe business was fast becoming one of the least profitable, through lack of co-operation and concerted action. Independently the shoe merchant was helpless to solve the vital problems of increased expenses, dishonest competition, such as dishonest advertising, rapidly changing styles, adverse shoe legislation, incompetent salesmen, and countless other matters. The idea of united action and organization of shoe merchants started originally in several cities and towns, and not with a national organization. Two of the oldest associations are the Portland (Maine) Association and the Michigan Retail Shoe Merchants' Association, but the real start was not

made until a few retailers in Philadelphia called a meeting in July, 1911, of the shoe merchants of the country, to organize a National Shoe Retailers' Association of America. Nearly fifty shoe merchants responded to the call to meet at Philadelphia and organized. These officers were elected: A. C. McGOWAN, President; J. L. TWADDELL, Secretary; E. D. GILDERSLEEVE, Treasurer.

A board of governors and directors was chosen, with annual dues of \$10.00, and all shoe retailers, shoe buyers in department stores, and shoe store managers were made eligible for membership.

By-Laws were adopted (see Appendix II), and after two days spent in working out future plans, the founders adjourned.

The first few years were difficult ones for the National Association. Little interest was taken by the retailers at large and the financing of the association was a serious problem, but the foundations and principles were sound, and gradually the membership increased throughout the country. The spirit of organization spread, assisted by the trade papers, and other shoe associations began to spring up in different parts of the country, until in the year 1916 there were in operation the following:—

Associated Shoe Co. of N. E., Hartford, Conn.
Birmingham Shoe Retailers' Asso., Birmingham, Ala.
Brockton Retail Shoe Merchants' Asso., Brockton, Mass.
Chicago Shoe Retailers' Asso., Chicago, Ill.
Cincinnati Retail Shoe Dealers' Asso., Cincinnati, Ohio
Hartford Shoe Retailers' Asso., Hartford, Conn.
Iowa Retail Shoe Dealers' Asso., Atlantic, Iowa
Indiana Retail Shoe Dealers' Asso., Indianapolis, Ind.
Kansas Shoe Retailers' Asso., Wichita, Kans.
Missouri Shoe Retailers' Asso., St. Louis, Mo.

Michigan Retail Shoe Dealers' Asso., Detroit, Mich.
 Milwaukee Shoe Retailers' Asso., Milwaukee, Wis.
 Minneapolis Retailers' Asso., Minneapolis, Minn.
 National Shoe Retailers' Asso., Philadelphia, Pa.
 Retail Shoe Dealers' Asso., Buffalo, N. Y.
 Napoleon Retail Shoe Dealers' Asso., Napoleon, Ohio
 Ohio Shoe Retailers' Asso., Columbus, Ohio
 Pennsylvania Shoe Retailers' Asso., Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Pensacola Retail Shoe Dealers' Asso., Pensacola, Fla.
 Philadelphia Retail Shoe Dealers' Asso., Philadelphia, Pa.
 Rochester Retail Shoe Dealers' Asso., Rochester, N. Y.
 Shoe & Leather Club, Dayton, Ohio
 Sioux City Retail Shoe Dealers' Asso., Sioux City, Iowa
 Texas Retail Shoe Dealers' Asso., Houston, Texas
 Washington Shoe Retailers' Asso., Washington, D. C.
 Youngstown Retail Shoe Dealers' Asso., Youngstown, O.
 Maine Retail Shoe Merchants' Asso., Portland, Me.
 New Hampshire Retail Shoe Merchants' Asso., Manches-
 ter, N. H.
 Rhode Island Retail Shoe Merchants' Asso., Providence,
 R. I.
 Vermont Retail Shoe Merchants' Asso., Brandon, Vt.
 New Haven Retail Shoe Merchants' Asso., New Haven,
 Conn.
 St. Paul Retail Shoe Merchants' Asso., St. Paul, Minn.
 Connecticut Retail Shoe Merchants' Asso., Hartford, Conn.
 Portsmouth Shoe Retailers' Asso., Portsmouth, Ohio
 Worcester Retail Shoe Merchants' Asso., Worcester, Mass.
 Springfield Retail Shoe Merchants' Asso., Springfield,
 Mass.
 Massachusetts Retail Shoe Merchants' Asso., Boston, Mass.
 Peoria Retail Shoe Dealers' Asso., Peoria, Ill.

At first the National Association did not get as much support from the shoe trade at large throughout the country as was necessary for its growth, but slow advancement was to be expected.

One of the direct benefits to the shoe merchant was the work accomplished by a committee representing the national retailers, who appeared at Washington in opposition to the so-called "Pure Shoe" bill. This bill was not passed at Washington, and a similar bill which came up twice in Massachusetts was opposed by a committee of the Massachusetts Association, headed by E. W. Burt. The story of the "Pure Shoe" bill follows:—

Congressman F. D. Lindquist filed December 10, 1914, and re-introduced in the House of Representatives, his "Pure Shoe Bill," H. R. 19,739, providing for the marketing of all fabrics, leather, and rubber goods.

Section 12 stated that leather impregnated with glucose, magnesia, or barium or excessive amounts of salts, acids, or non-essentials in tanning, should be called "adulterated" leather.

Section 14 stated that the term "seconds" under the act should mean any article or fabric that had been mutilated or damaged. That all shoes should be marked either "adulterated" or "unadulterated," showing all constituents in the counter, insole, outsole, middle sole, slip sole, and outer surface of the shoe. Even if not composed of unadulterated leather it must be marked. The original bill, filed December 18, had been changed slightly.

The shoe manufacturers and the retailers of the United States appeared at Washington in opposition to this bill. The committee was pretty well convinced that it would be a great injury to the shoe industry and of no protection to the public.

In Massachusetts it was introduced as the "Oldfield" bill, but was defeated. Such a bill would reduce the supply of leather by requiring its use in place of substitutes by manu-

facturers making shoes for the working classes, who must have shoes at a price within their means, which is possible only by using substitutes yielding greater maximum service than if all leather of poor quality were used. Such a bill would also place the control of leather in the hands of a few, who would select their customers, thereby eliminating competition in shoe manufacturing.

New England was particularly interested in this bill, believing that it should not only be considered seriously but opposed by shoe manufacturers, shoe retailers, tanners, and distributors of leather, who should be interested in keeping the price of leather within bounds, preventing any further advance on one of the greatest necessities of life. Shoe associations therefore did their part and the bill did not pass.

The Convention of the National Shoe Retailers Association in New York, on January 10, 1914, was of great importance to the Association. A resolution had been prepared to be presented by E. W. Burt of the Boston Association, and forwarded to Secretary A. H. Geuting, relative to an amendment to the Constitution changing membership dues, which were \$10 for all members, to a graded affiliation list. Following is the resolution:—

That the Constitution and By-Laws of the National Association be amended to read as follows:—

1. Regular members in good standing, having full voting power, to pay \$10 per year.
2. Any retailer in the United States, joining as an Association member without voting power, at \$5 per year.
3. Any member of local, city, or county shoe associations can become affiliated members of the National Shoe Retailers' Association at \$2 per member, provided 50 per cent. of the local association joins.

The above resolution was passed unanimously by the National Shoe Retailers' Association.

In 1915 another change in the Constitution was made when the following resolution was presented by E. W. Burt

at the Convention of the National Shoe Retailers' Association:—

Any city or State shoe retailers' organization which desires membership in the National Association may apply for the same and, when accepted, such association, upon the payment of \$1 per capita for each member, becomes an affiliated body, with a voting power of one for every ten members.

The affiliated membership dues were \$2 for each member, and since the last convention some eight or ten State and city associations had joined, but it was felt that under the \$1 membership basis all of the 27 or more associations then organized would join at once.

This resolution was passed unanimously and E. W. Burt, chairman of the Membership Committee, stated that before 1916 every State in New England would be organized.

The revised Constitution of the year 1917, now in operation, is given in Appendix II.

The first association to affiliate under the resolution adopted in 1915 was the Massachusetts organization. The work of organizing the New England States was then begun. The first gunshot was fired into the Pine Tree State of Maine. The old Portland Association merged and became the Maine Retail Shoe Merchants' Association on February 16, 1915, with a membership of about 30.

The work then spread to the State of New Hampshire, and at Manchester some 30 men joined hands and organized the New Hampshire Retail Shoe Merchants' Association on March 9, 1915.

The next organization was the New Haven (Conn.) Association, where 21 men organized at the Chamber of Commerce, on March 18, 1915, the New Haven Retail Shoe Merchants' Association.

The work continued into the State of Rhode Island, and on March 23, 1915, some 18 men organized the Rhode Island Retail Shoe Merchants' Association.

The next State, and the most difficult, was the Green Mountain State of Vermont, where on April 9, 1915, at Rutland, 25 men organized the Vermont Retail Shoe Merchants' Association.

The last State was Connecticut. On April 20, at Hartford, the Hartford Retail Shoe Dealers' Association backed up the proposition, and the shoe merchants, some 100 strong, organized the Connecticut Retail Shoe Merchants' Association, the last in the chain of New England States. Affiliation with the National was passed in nearly all State associations, putting in about 400 members.

Having organized six States successfully, E. W. Burt, who had been appointed official organizer for the National Association, then took up the principal cities in Massachusetts, selecting first Worcester, which was organized November 23, 1915, with a charter membership of 21, comprising nearly one-half the shoe merchants of the city. Springfield, Mass. was then organized on December 7, 1915, with a charter membership of 18.

Following is a list of Associations organized, up to 1916, by E. W. Burt:—

Nov. 9, 1911:

Boston Retail Shoe Merchants' Association.

June 12, 1913:

Massachusetts Retail Shoe Merchants' Association.

Feb. 16, 1915:

Maine Retail Shoe Merchants' Association.

March 9, 1915:

New Hampshire Retail Shoe Merchants' Association.

March 18, 1915:

New Haven, Conn. (city), R. S. M. A.

March 23, 1915:

Rhode Island Retail Shoe Merchants' Association.

April 9, 1915:

Vermont Retail Shoe Merchants' Association.

April 20, 1915:

Connecticut Retail Shoe Merchants' Association.

Nov. 23, 1915:

Worcester, Mass. (city), R. S. M. Assn.

Dec. 7, 1916:

Springfield, Mass. (city), R. S. M. Assn.

March, 1916:

Delaware Retail Shoe Merchants' Association.

June 5, 1915:

Boston Retail Shoe Salesmen's Association, 100 members.



CHAPTER X.

ADDRESS BY E. W. BURT.

CONVENTION OF NATIONAL SHOE RETAILERS' ASSOCIATION.

JANUARY 11, 12, 1916.



HAVE been asked to read a paper on "How to Organize," which is a subject of vital importance to the future growth of the national body and the shoe retailers throughout the country.

I have always considered myself the servant of the national organization, a spokesman to whom has been permitted the honor of going into the unorganized fields to persuade and urge the individual shoe retailers to amalgamate into bodies of shoe-men under the banner of shoe organizations.

It is but natural for men to indulge in the illusions of hope. We are apt, however, to shut our eyes to the possibility of success, and say it is impossible, but this is not the part that we must take in this arduous task that is before us. The question which must be decided by you, yourselves, is, —shall we lay down our arms and admit defeat, or take up the sinews of war and wave our proud banner from the fortress of victory?

For my part, let me say that the time for action has come. It is a question of the utmost importance to the National Shoe Retailers' Association. Let me ask you, what needs the National Association to put it in the front rank of associations in this country? Is it not strength in numbers, backed up and endorsed by affiliated State and city organizations in every section and community in this country? It is possible

to do this, if you will, but until that has been accomplished and the time has come when you can point with your finger to a solid, organized United States, north, east, south and west, the National Shoe Retailers' Association will not have fulfilled its great mission.

Organization of shoe retailers is in its infancy. There are shoemen today who have been doing business for 40—yes, 50—years, who do not know what the words mean and I speak only the bare truth when I say New England has been for 50 years the most barren section of the whole American continent. Here is a field upon which the seed of organization has died as soon as it was sown, because the spirit of our New England forefathers, which was created by organization, had never entered into the business world of shoe retailing.

The creation and true foundation of all shoe-trade associations depend upon the same influence which controls all fraternal orders, viz., "friendship." The sensitive touch of the master hand must call into being the controlling principles of life, friendship, co-operation and mutual help and impress upon the doubting mind of the retail merchant that only by shoe organization can the merchandising of footwear and his business in particular be placed on a higher plane, covering a broader field, and bringing to him unbounded benefits, which have always been impossible to him as an independent shoe retailer.

The man from the "outside" is in a far better position to meet and overcome the stubborn opposition of a doubting mind,—the man who can swing into line the unbeliever, who, in the end, becomes the staunchest supporter by elimination of personal differences which will often arise against a man at home. This has been true in every State and city organized in New England.

Opposition is the God-given right of every man, but there is no sane reason for opposition to organization, and the doubting minority must in the end be over-ruled by the confident majority. The man from Vermont who wrote me,

"You can't get ten men in the State together," must be shown that it is possible to bring 50, and again the man in Rhode Island, who declared with a loud, commanding voice, that 18 men was not a representative gathering of the State, and that he "moves to adjourn," had to be forcibly shown by the chairman that ten can organize a State organization.

The first call sent out by letter from the outside organizer must be followed up by a similar one from a retailer in the section to be organized, backed up by the trade papers. A centrally-located visit to all the shoe merchants in a city the day before will result in more good than any other plan. In the city of Worcester a carefully laid campaign brought out one-half of all the shoe merchants. A day previous to the meeting telegrams and telephone calls complete the campaign. The organizer has chosen a speaker to bring with him, and the meeting opens.

As I was elected chairman at all but one of the eight associations organized, the rules of the convention were carried through on similar lines. Your one thought above all others must be "Failure is impossible." Your strongest assets are courage, confidence, action.

Do not be alarmed when the retailers assemble and look at the chairman with suspicion as they ask, "Why are we here?" "What do we organize for?" "What do we get out of it?"

Very natural questions, to be sure, and easily answered by the man who knows the inside workings of shoe associations. "We are here to become acquainted—to know our brother retailers." "We organize to help ourselves and each other." "You get out of it just what you put into it and the benefits come from your deeds and accomplishments." These are answers which strike the truth home to the assembled retailers.

A spirit of enthusiasm for action sweeps through the house and at the psychological moment the chair calls for a motion to organize, which is carried, not often unanimously, the majority is sufficient to bring into existence the desired association. The order of business proceeds and

every man approving has the honor of being a charter member.

Have your order of business prepared in advance. The local retailer who assists must be instructed fully as to the intents, purposes, and final results. The information given the assembled retailers by the organizer must be instructive, constructive, and practical. The work accomplished by other shoe associations must be brought out, showing actual results and benefits of organization in other States. Every argument, criticism, or objection must be met instantaneously by the organizer with a decisive answer.

For example, "In Maine," a retailer stated, "I understand we are organizing to control prices." In New Hampshire another retailer came to object to organization for the purpose of controlling fire insurance. Remember it is not an easy problem to overcome the objections of men who have been radically against organizations for 40 years, but the work has begun, a name is selected, which in every case has a similar heading with substitution only of the name of the State or city. The officers are chosen by a nominating committee and elected at once. Dues are settled, as well as dates of meetings. By-Laws and membership committees are appointed, new business is taken up, and within the short space of two hours time, adjournment is in order and the work is done.

In all the work of forming organizations the greatest satisfaction to me has been to see the look of pleasure which shines from the faces of the members of the young association when congratulations are passed around and the seeming impossible has happened. The burden of the shoe business has been lifted, as it were, from their shoulders, as the idea sinks into their minds that differences of the past have been forgotten and a new life begins for the shoe retailer.

A rising vote of thanks to the organizer expresses far better than words the appreciation of the efforts which made it possible to join the ranks of the organized and add one

more victory to the cause of the National Shoe Retailers' Association.

The results of organization in New England, with a record of five State associations in seven weeks' time, should be a great incentive to other retailers throughout the country to go out and do likewise. If this be accomplished, I shall feel that my efforts for the welfare and good of the National Shoe Retailers' Association have not been in vain, but have been worth while.

RETAIL SHOE STORE SALESMEN TELL MERCHANTS WHY
THEY ORGANIZE.

At the January 17th monthly dinner of the Massachusetts Retail Shoe Merchants' Association Messrs. D. G. Twiss, Ralph Studley, and H. E. Currier, of the Executive Committee of the Boston Shoe Salesman's Association, reinforced the favorable attitude towards their organization held by Massachusetts shoe merchants, and their papers were enthusiastically received.

First Vice-President D. G. Twiss of the salesmen's association said in the course of his paper:—

“GOOD WILL AND ENCOURAGEMENT NECESSARY.

“The trade journals have told us our organization is a credit to us; that for three years we have worked patiently to encourage Boston shoe salesmen in the development of higher ideals; and that we have exercised diplomacy and created sound principles. What we have always done has been not to irritate Boston merchants, but to secure their confidence and good will by developing in the salesmen of Boston self-respect and a better knowledge of salesmanship. Our Association feels that the first step toward getting a man out of a rut is to get him thinking. We accordingly have built our association with care, that we may gain your attention and finally your good will.

“Your good will will reflect itself in the effort you make to encourage your men to become members of our association. We have tried to make it plain and a point of permanent principle that we are not a union of organized labor.

We ask to be a power only in educating our members in shoe salesmanship and in raising the moral standard of the men. The shoe salesmen of Boston have capacity and ability. Ambition is not wholly secured by raise of pay. On the contrary, you can secure more by an occasional 'well done,' than in any other way. Encourage initiative by listening to what your men tell you.

"The real question that you all want to ask is, 'Now that you have been endorsed by the Massachusetts Association, what do you propose to do to bring about this improvement in shoe salesmen?' We hope that your salesmen can feel that in joining this organization it is with your wish and that by so doing they will not incur your displeasure. Encourage the clever salesmen to join us for the benefit of the less clever. After the spirit in a man has been aroused, we hope to create a text-book for shoe salesmen that we all can follow—a uniform course. We want to instruct in the methods of shoemaking; how to tell the various leathers; how to tell hand work from machine work; how to justify to a customer the added expense of hand work; how to measure feet for custom orders; how the repair man can help out the salesman; how to make an anatomical study of the foot, and many other fundamentals.

"We should like to feel that we can call upon the members of the Massachusetts Retail Shoe Merchants Association for their knowledge and advice. We should like to see you at our meetings and taking part in our discussions. We are all working for the same end—the better selling of shoes at retail. Be optimistic with us, and in one year we want to come back and ask you just this: 'Have we made good?'"

The applause that greeted Mr. Twiss' remarks showed a most encouraging approval of his sentiments, and the paper of Studley, the next speaker, was followed with evident interest. Mr. Studley said in part:—

"HISTORY AND AIMS OF ORGANIZATION.

"We are extremely glad of the opportunity to place before you a few facts regarding our association, the purposes

of which may not be fully appreciated by many of you. One of the hardest problems our organizers faced was how to meet and overcome the unfavorable attitude caused by the forcible methods of an earlier organization of shoe salesmen which proved to be a failure because of the fact that it was nothing more nor less than a union.

"Our constitution provides that this organization is not in any sense a union, and does not seek to interfere with or regulate the hours or conditions in places of employment.

"Three years' time has now been spent in order that the men might meet and fraternize for the improvement of the retail shoe salesmen through organization.

"CUT-PRICE STORES EXCLUDED.

"At the time of our second banquet, early in 1915, the first real organization work was begun, and a committee, chosen with the assistance of your present executive, Mr. Burt, and former President Willson, drew up a constitution which was accepted in May, 1915. The merchants were then asked if the association might with their consent invite their salesmen to join, and to these inquiries not a single objection was raised. At the June meeting of last year we closed our charter with 120 members, and since that time we have grown to the present roster of 170 members. This membership has been carefully chosen from those stores doing a legitimate business and we have excluded the cut-price store. Too much credit cannot be given to trade papers which were in close sympathy with our work, and each step forward has been carefully considered and has practically received the endorsement of your body.

"Education is our watchword. It is the one work that justifies our existence, and our purpose here tonight is to ask your co-operation; to have you send your men to us for that purpose; and to realize that the result will be for your material benefit as well as our own."

Mr. Currier followed with a paper summarized below:—

"PLAN EDUCATION THROUGH LECTURE COURSES.

"The purpose of our organization is co-operation with the employer and all interested in the sale of shoes in order to

raise the standard of shoe-selling and the art of shoe-fitting; to benefit by the acquaintance of the best salesmen and fitters in the association; to aid those who wish to make themselves more valuable to their employer; to create a bureau of information to which shoe merchants may apply for shoe salesmen, thus obviating the mercantile agency fees for securing positions; and to secure the confidence of the employer and stimulate social life. The endorsement of this association means that the applicant's record has been examined carefully and that only square, honest workers will be recommended.

"One of your members a short time ago made the statement for publication that of all articles of merchandise, footwear was sold the least intelligently. This thought was uppermost in the minds of our officers many months previous to the adoption of our constitution and that therefore our members must educate themselves to a higher standard of efficiency; a more complete knowledge of the manufacture of shoes, leather, and lasts, and their application to each individual foot, and a knowledge of foot anatomy and of the method of fitting arch-supports and appliances for the relief of foot troubles. In order to secure this education we propose to devote our meetings in a large measure to lecture courses by the best men obtainable on the various subjects to our business.

"'Are you willing to lend your assistance to this educational work?' is the question we are asking you this evening. 'Are you willing to assist us in putting Boston on the map as one city in the Union where shoes are sold intelligently?'"

The case of the Boston Shoe Salesmen's Association, as ably presented by their representatives, is worthy of serious consideration and the encouragement of every shoe merchant as an example of what may be done through intelligent organization; and the ideals, energy, and initiative shown will undoubtedly be heartily endorsed and adopted by progressive shoe merchants and salesmen throughout the country.



CHAPTER XI.

THROUGH THE ASSOCIATION TO THE PUBLIC.

of the most valuable bits of Association work is in the utility of collective publicity of members of Association to the public. This can be done in a number of ways, through co-operative advertising in newspapers on some one major subject. For example, the opening of a season and emphasis on some one general commodity. If the men agree that white footwear should be popular, then that might be the topic. Or the subject might be "High Shoe Day," "Low Shoe Day," or "Dress Up Week." The cost of the advertisement can be *pro rata* between the stores, and it is best to do so on the basis of so much per thousand dollars in sales per year. This gives the small merchant a proportional publicity at a proportional expense.

When it comes to publicity of a nature direct to the consumer who enters the store, the circular as prepared by the Massachusetts Retail Shoe Merchants' Association went into a distributing value of one million copies. The same being endorsed by many of the State Associations throughout the country.

To give you a graphic idea of what points were covered, we enumerate the twelve paragraphs.

What to expect and what not to expect in footwear, and the reasons:

FOREWORD

Did you ever think that your shoes are subjected to harder wear and more abuse than any other part of your

apparel? Imperfections in shoes may occur, and will not always develop until worn. This booklet is given you with a desire for mutual co-operation between you and your shoe merchant. These twelve rules are suggested as a basis for adjustment of complaints, and have been compiled and endorsed by the Massachusetts Retail Shoe Merchants' Association, Inc., Boston, Mass.

NUMBER ONE

SHOE VALUES

Purchase best grades of footwear. It is economy to obtain high-grade leather and skilled workmanship, which will prove more comfortable and give better service. Save money, time and trouble by buying two or three pairs; then alternate in wearing, and your boots will hold their shape better, wear longer and be more satisfactory in every way. When shoes prove lacking in service it is obviously unjust to ask your dealer to replace same with a new pair, as it is only fair for you to pay for the wear obtained.

NUMBER TWO

LEATHERS.

Glazed Kid is the most comfortable, and *wears*.

Gun Metal or *Mat Calf* is heavier, not as easy, but adapted for rough usage.

Most kinds of *Tan Leathers* lose their good looks if wet, and should be worn only in dry weather. The surface is often burned by acid polishes and friction from the cloth in the hands of the boot polisher; in fact, all leathers are damaged from these causes. Tan leathers are not guaranteed.

Patent Leathers are for dress wear. This leather is not guaranteed against cracking or peeling.

NUMBER THREE

FOOTWEAR.

Heavy for rough wear, medium weight for the street, business or office. Ladies' thin turns are for dress wear, and not intended for wet weather or constant outdoor use.

Cutting or defacing of uppers by wearing shoes in rough places is abuse on your part, and your merchant should not be held responsible for damages of this nature.

NUMBER FOUR

FITTING.

Please remember that a size mark in a shoe does not indicate uniformity of size or width, and you may observe a variance in the fittings; but should you insist on a fitting "too short or too narrow," such fact ought to be plainly stamped on the linings, and you cannot in fairness claim any redress thereafter.

Shoes worn out of doors or soiled on the bottoms are *Valueless* to the dealer, and cannot be exchanged for a new pair or full credit given, as they are unsaleable. Hence the necessity of exercising great care in selection and in fitting.

NUMBER FIVE

BUTTON HOLES AND EYELETS.

When button holes rip out, uppers tear, or eyelets pull away from the leathers, on account of unusual strain, or when back stays wear out from friction of the skirts of

women or trousers of men, it is only fair for your dealer to repair these items at a reasonable charge, and—*important*—your shoes should be repaired by the store at which they were purchased, as every dealer realizes that it is necessary to repair shoes properly, as “cobblers” are liable to damage the stitching, causing rips.

NUMBER SIX

UPPER CRACKS AND SOLE RIPS.

Uppers will harden and crack from perspiration, and your shoe merchant cannot be held responsible for this fault. Rips in soles or uppers can easily be repaired at small expense. Their occurrence is unavoidable. You should allow your dealer to repair same.

NUMBER SEVEN

COUNTERS.

To prevent counters from running over or losing their shape, have heels repaired as soon as the first lift is worn down.

Wood heels have leather top lifts, and should *never* be allowed to wear below the leather.

NUMBER EIGHT

INNER SOLES AND LININGS.

The heat from your feet, or wearing boots in wet weather, will cause inner soles to become depressed in spots under the ball joints or toes, causing lumps. In such cases, your shoeman can remove these lumpy places as often as required, and, as the shoes are not at fault, you should not

make claims for allowance owing to this condition. Linings will stretch, causing wrinkles, which can be removed by shrinking; but after the shoes are worn you should not expect new shoes on this account. The linings on the inside at the counters will wear out from perspiration and friction. Retailers are glad to repair same at moderate charges.

NUMBER NINE

BURNT LEATHER OR SOLES.

When damp or wet, all leathers burn from contact with the slightest heat. Don't expect your dealer to re-sole "burned shoes" without charge. When shoes are wet, put them on a shoe tree to dry, and thus preserve their shape.

NUMBER TEN

When soles are defective, it is only fair adjustment for you to pay your dealer for service received.

NUMBER ELEVEN

FANCY OR NOVELTY BOOTS.

All shoes made from delicate colored leather or fabrics in tops or vamps are luxuries, only intended for dress wear, and not for service. You should not ask your dealer for any guarantee on these "millinery shoes," realizing that wear is a secondary consideration.

NUMBER TWELVE

SEMI-ANNUAL CLEARANCE SALES.

These sales are made to dispose of odd sizes and discontinued lines, and customers are requested to regard all sales as *final*.

FINIS.

We trust the information herein contained may prove helpful to wearer and dealer alike, and reduce the economic loss which has gone so far as to become a hardship and a burden to your shoe merchant.

Respectfully submitted,

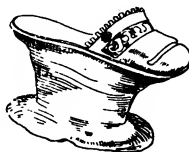
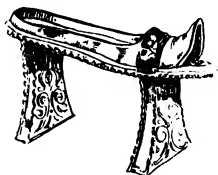
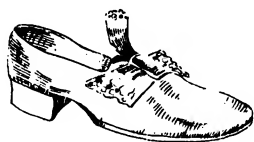
MASSACHUSETTS RETAIL SHOE MERCHANTS'
ASSOCIATION, INC.,

Boston, Massachusetts

CONVENTION OF CONNECTICUT SHOE RETAILERS' ASSOCIATION.
Last State in New England organized by E. W. Burt.

UNION CARD OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

From United Shoe Machinery Museum.



SHOES OF LONG AGO.



CHAPTER XII.

A "UNION CARD" OF THE 18TH CENTURY.

An interesting and curious old certificate of membership in one of the 18th century craft Guilds has found its way from Austria into America.

The parchment is in the form of a diploma, or recommendation, and might well be termed "A Union Card of the Eighteenth Century," showing the uphill road that apprentices had to follow before being admitted to the fellowship of journeymen.

The diploma, which is here reproduced, freely translated, reads as follows:

We, the sworn chief and other master-workmen of the honorable trade of shoemakers in the interior Austrian capital of Freyburg in Breisgau, hereby declare that the present journeyman by name of Faullmeyer, born in Lithdenwiller, near Freyburg, 21 years of age, and of medium stature and black hair, has worked for us here 25 weeks, and during that time conducted himself in a surpassing faithful, industrious, quiet, peaceful and honest manner, as behooves every journeyman, to which we certify and therefore beg of all our co-masters to assist him according to usage among mechanics. Date Freyburg 11 month A. D. 1782.

Master, where the journeyman worked,

JOHANNES DRITZELER

Chief Master
(Signature)
(Seal)

The form of industrial organization known as the Guild first appeared in the 12th century, and Dean Swift Gay of Harvard's Graduate School of Business says that it was an unbidden and unwelcome innovation. The guild's early

efforts were in the direction of securing inclusive legislation—authority that would bring all the workers of a particular craft into one membership in entire control of the market. This apparently coincides with most trade unions today, although from the recommendation contained in Faullmeyer's "union card" it is safe to assume that he did not engage in strikes or picketing. Even if he had been so inclined the master journeyman and the chief master had him and the other apprentices more under their thumb than is possible now.

Gradually, however, these old guilds managed to secure an almost dominant political position, at least within the city and town organizations. Later we find them taking an active interest in legislation, so as to secure to themselves exclusive privileges. Then in the 15th and 16th centuries they are acting on the defensive, striving to maintain their privileged position against all opposition.

It is believed that the guilds were of French origin, but it is a fact that they were known on the continent and in England as far back as the end of the 12th or the beginning of the 13th century. The Guild Hall in London stands today as an historic example of the place where shoemakers of former days used to gather.



APPENDICES

I. MASSACHUSETTS CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I.

SECTION 1. The name of this Association shall be the Massachusetts Retail Shoe Merchants' Association.

SEC. 2. The purpose of this Association shall be to promote a higher ethical standard of trade among its members, to endeavor to lessen or eliminate, through organization, burdensome abuses affecting the shoe business and the general public, for the dissemination of beneficial information, and through sociability and friendship to draw closer together the legitimate shoe merchants of the State of Massachusetts and New England.

ARTICLE II.

SECTION 1. The officers of this Association shall be President, 1st Vice-President, 2nd Vice-President, Secretary, and Treasurer, and also an Executive Committee who shall be elected annually.

SEC. 2. The Executive Committee shall consist of eleven members, two of whom shall be the President and Treasurer and nine members who shall be elected at the annual meeting.

ARTICLE III.

SECTION 1. The regular meetings of this Association shall be held in the city of Boston on the second Tuesday of each month, except July, August, and September, for the transaction of general business and discussion of subjects of interest to the members and our customers. The annual meeting shall be held in the city of Boston, on the second Tuesday of November of each year.

Special meetings may be called by the Executive Committee on the written request of twenty members in good standing, for the transaction of State and Boston Association business, and ten members in good standing may likewise cause a special meeting to be called for the transaction of business concerning Boston and the immediate vicinity only.

SEC. 2. Fifteen voting members shall constitute a quorum for transacting business affecting the city of Boston and twenty-five voting members shall constitute quorum for transaction of State and New England Association business.

ARTICLE IV.

SECTION 1. At the regular meeting preceding the annual meeting, the President shall appoint a committee of five members, three of whom shall constitute a quorum, who shall nominate a list of officers

to serve for the ensuing year. The officers shall be elected by ballot by a majority of the members present at the annual meeting.

SEC. 2. The members shall fill by ballot all vacancies among the officers or in the Executive Committee that may occur between any two annual elections. Officers so elected shall hold office until the next annual election.

ARTICLE V.

SECTION 1. The President shall preside when present at all meetings of the Association and at all meetings of the Executive Committee and appoint all committees not otherwise provided for. He shall exercise general supervision over all business of the Association.

SEC. 2. The Vice-Presidents, in their order, shall act in the absence of the President and perform all his duties.

SEC. 3. The Secretary shall record the proceedings of all meetings, conduct the correspondence, and perform all other duties that usually appertain to that office. He shall make an annual report at the annual meeting.

SEC. 4. The Treasurer shall collect and disburse all funds of the Association. He shall deposit in the name of the Association all funds in a repository designated by the Executive Committee. Disbursements shall be made only on the order of the Executive Committee. All checks shall be signed by the Treasurer and countersigned by the President. He shall render his report at the annual meeting and at any time on written request of the Executive Committee.

SEC. 5. The Executive Committee shall have the general management of the business of the Association, approve all purchases, audit all bills and claims and direct their payment, if found correct. The Committee shall make at each meeting a report of all business which it has transacted.

ARTICLE VI.

SECTION 1. The annual dues shall be \$5.00 for the period of one year, starting with the end of the annual year in November, 1914, and ending with the annual meeting in November, 1915, same to be payable upon application for membership and to be assessed as November 1, 1914, to all present members.

SEC. 2. Any member who is in arrears ninety (90) days for membership dues shall, after written notice by the Treasurer, be suspended from the Association, and cannot be reinstated except by payment of his entire dues, and approval of the Executive Committee, subject to final approval by the Association.

ARTICLE VII.

SECTION 1. Proprietors, managers, buyers and assistant buyers of legitimate shoe stores or shoe departments in Massachusetts or other

New England states, may be eligible for membership. Applications for membership shall be passed upon by the Membership Committee before being presented to the Association for final action.

SEC. 2. Any man elected to membership in the Massachusetts Retail Shoe Merchants' Association who at the time of his election is connected with any legitimate shoe store or department store and who later severs his connection with said store or departments, and connects himself with other stores or departments, must come before the Executive Committee and Membership Committee for re-election to this Association. In case the man is not re-elected to membership, a just pro rata of his annual dues shall be refunded to the individual member, if same has been paid by him, or to the organization who did pay same dues.

SEC. 3. Honorary Members and Associate Members may be chosen by two-thirds vote of those present at any regular meeting and they need not be actively engaged in the retail shoe business, and shall have a voice, but no vote. Honorary Members will be admitted without dues and Associate Members will pay the regular annual dues.

ARTICLE VIII.

COMMITTEES.

SECTION 1. There shall be appointed each year at the annual meeting, subject to ratification by the Association, the following standing Committees:

Membership Committee.

The committee shall consist of five members, three of whom shall constitute a quorum. It shall be the duty of the committee to secure and receive applications for membership. All applications for membership shall be passed on by the Membership Committee and presented to the Association for final action.

Reception Committee.

This committee shall consist of seven members whose duty it shall be to introduce new members and promote good fellowship among the members.

Entertainment Committee.

This committee shall consist of three members. It shall be the duty of the committee to secure speakers to be present at the meetings, and to make such other plans as will promote sociability and friendship among the members, and to make the meetings interesting.

Grievance Committee.

This committee shall consist of five members. It shall be the duty of the committee to investigate all grievances of trade abuses which may be brought up for consideration at any regular or special meet-

ing. The committee shall make monthly reports and recommendations of what action the Association should take on any matter referred to it.

Legislative Committee.

This committee shall consist of five members. It shall be the duty of this committee to watch all legislation, either state or local, that may affect the interests of the shoe trade and to investigate the law pertaining to any question that may arise, and to devise ways and means of overcoming any difficulties by proper legislation affecting the trade or the public.

General Welfare Committee.

The President shall appoint one member in each city and town outside of the city of Boston, to act as the representative of the Association in said city or town, whose duty it shall be to secure new members, further the interest of the Association and to report any matters affecting the trade in his locality to the Association.

Publicity Committee.

The officers of the Association shall act as the Publicity Committee.

Auditing Committee.

The Auditing Committee shall be composed of three members, who shall be appointed at the regular meeting preceding the annual meeting, to receive from the Treasurer all books and papers containing accounts or items of accounts, properly balanced, together with the bank books. The Committee shall carefully examine and audit all accounts therein, and make a report in writing at the annual meeting.

ARTICLE IX.

SECTION 1. This Constitution and By-Laws may be amended in whole or in part by a majority vote of those present at any regular meeting and entitled to vote, providing the proposed amendment is presented for the consideration of any regular monthly meeting and the Secretary is directed by a majority vote of said meeting to notify in writing all members of this Association of the proposed amendment two weeks before the next regular meeting, when the final vote will be taken.

SEC. 2. When a proposed amendment has been voted down it cannot be brought up again until one regular meeting has been held after it was last voted upon.

ARTICLE X.

ORDER OF BUSINESS.

1. Roll Call.
2. Reading of Minutes of last meeting.

3. Applications for membership.
4. Communications and correspondence.
5. Reports of standing committees.
6. Reports of special committees.
7. Unfinished business.
8. New business.
9. General discussion for betterment of trade.
10. Adjournment.

ARTICLE XI.

SECTION 1. In all cases involving parliamentary procedure not provided for by the Constitution and By-Laws, Cushing's latest volume of rules shall be accepted as authority.

II. NATIONAL SHOE RETAILERS' ASSOCIATION.

CONSTITUTION OF THE NATIONAL SHOE RETAILERS' ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

ARTICLE I.

PURPOSE—SHOE RETAILERS' BETTERMENT.

The purposes of this Association are as follows:

To promote the dignity of Shoe Retailing by the elevation of its membership to a higher plane; to improve the ethics of the craft by adopting and maintaining wholesome standards of merchandising practice; to encourage contributions to the science of shoe retailing in the form of books, lectures and publications; to stimulate organizations everywhere, having for its main purpose the uplift by education of the shoe retail merchants of the United States; to encourage friendship in the trade and encourage the members to better the ideals of the craft by educational methods; to discourage and eliminate fraudulent exploiters in the shoe trade; to amalgamate the local, state and group of states' associations into a central body so as to give the retail shoe merchants a united voice; to secure freedom from unlawful and unjust exactions; to protect its members from unscrupulous and dishonest employers; to promote and enlarge more friendly intercourse between its members and to co-operate with all who desire the welfare and betterment of the shoe trade.

ARTICLE II.

MEMBERSHIP.

Membership in this Association shall be as follows:

A. Association Membership. Duly organized Shoe Retail Associations of recognized standing may become affiliated at per capita cost of One Dollar.

B. Individual Membership. Any individual, co-partnership, corporation or manager of a shoe department engaged in the selling of shoes at retail shall be eligible for membership on the payment of Five Dollars (\$5.00) annual dues.

C. Sustaining Members, by which is meant those individuals or firms who are interested in, and in sympathy with, the objects of this Association and willing to contribute to its support for the general betterment of the shoe business thru the advancement of the retail shoe merchants.

D. Associate Membership. There may be elected to associate membership upon the payment of Two Dollars (\$2.00) annual dues, traveling salesmen representing shoes, leather, rubber and shoe finding industries.

E. Honorary Membership. Circumstances may dictate that we, as a body, shall be empowered to so nominate at each convention any prominent person who has honored and exalted the N. S. R. A.

F. All memberships shall be bestowed by a two-thirds vote of the Membership Committee. Applications for membership shall be sent in writing to the Secretary.

G. Only persons included in Sections A and B of this Article shall be eligible to office in this Association.

ARTICLE III.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

SECTION 1. The Board of Directors shall consist of twenty-one (21) members, who shall be elected at the annual meeting of the Association, by ballots of delegates present; at the meeting in 1917, seven (7) directors shall be elected for one (1) year, seven (7) for two (2) years, and seven (7) for three (3) years, and thereafter seven (7) shall be elected every year for a term of three (3) years.

SEC. 2. Any vacancy, due to resignation or death, may be filled by the President, with the approval of the Board of Directors, for the unexpired term.

ARTICLE IV.

OFFICERS.

SECTION 1. The officers of the National Shoe Retailers' Association shall consist of a President, four (4) Vice-Presidents and a Secretary-Treasurer, to be elected by the Board of Directors from their number during the annual convention. Their term of office shall be for one year or until their successors are elected and qualified.

SEC. 2. The appointive officer of this Association shall be the Field Secretary, who shall be appointed and whose salary shall be determined by the duly elected President, with the approval of the Board of Directors.

ARTICLE V.

ADVISORY BOARD.

SECTION 1. The Advisory Board shall be composed of the Presidents of each state or group of state associations where same have been affiliated with this Association. Where there is no state association, but important local associations, the President of these local associations shall have the same standing that the Presidents of state or group of state associations enjoy, and shall be a member of the Advisory Board.

SEC. 2. The Presidents of such associations above referred to shall, by virtue of their official positions, automatically become members of the Advisory Board of this Association, and their membership on the Advisory Board shall terminate when their successors shall be elected and installed as Presidents of their respective state, group of states, or local associations, as above qualified.

SEC. 3. It shall be the duty of the Advisory Board to advise with the Officers and Directors of the Association upon the affairs of the Association whenever so requested by the President. The Advisory Board shall be entitled to take the initiative in calling matters of importance in the affairs of the Association to the attention of the Board of Directors.

ARTICLE VI.

NOMINATING COMMITTEE.

There shall be a Nominating Committee appointed by the President, consisting of three (3) members, who shall act with four (4) other members who shall be elected from the floor of the Convention, for the purpose of nominating the Board of Directors. This Nominating Committee may present two or more nominees for each director, according to their best judgment, to maintain harmony and enthusiasm and to secure for the Association the greatest efficiency.

ARTICLE VII.

DUTIES OF THE PRESIDENT.

SECTION 1. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association, of the Board of Directors and of the Advisory Board.

SEC. 2. He shall appoint, with the approval of the Board of Directors of the Association, all standing committees and such committees as may be necessary to assist the officers in the performance of their duties, and carry out the requirements of the Constitution and By-Laws.

SEC. 3. He shall countersign all orders drawn on the Treasurer for the payment of moneys, and shall be a member ex-officio of all committees.

SEC. 4. The President shall be allowed such necessary expenses incurred in the interests of the Association as may be authorized by the Board of Directors.

ARTICLE VIII.

DUTIES OF VICE-PRESIDENTS.

In the event of death, illness, disability or inability of the President to act, the Board of Directors shall designate the Vice-President who shall act as President until his successor shall be elected and qualified or until the disability of the President is removed.

ARTICLE IX.

DUTIES OF THE SECRETARY-TREASURER.

The Secretary-Treasurer shall collect and receive the annual dues and all other income. He shall be the custodian of the funds of the Association, out of which he shall pay money only upon order of the President. He shall keep a record of the proceedings of all Conventions of the Association, and meetings of the Board of Directors and the Advisory Board; he shall also, as far as possible, obtain by mail or otherwise and keep records of all meetings of committees, and render such service as may be proper for the Association under the direction at all times of the President and Directors.

He shall furnish a bond in such sum as the Board of Directors shall determine and approve of, the cost of such bond to be paid by the Association. He shall take and file vouchers for all disbursements of moneys, and shall keep account of all receipts, remittances, and expenditures. He shall make annually, in writing, a report to the President, and shall prepare, in writing, a full report of the finances of the Association, which he shall present to the Convention, all of which shall embody an itemized statement of dues received from members and other sources, and shall also render an itemized account of expenditures. He shall make a monthly accounting to the President. He shall present his books for inspection to the Auditor at the close of the fiscal year.

ARTICLE X.

DUTIES OF FIELD SECRETARY.

The Field Secretary shall be the Active Agent in all the affairs of the Association. He shall keep in touch with and visit all local, state and group associations. He shall represent the National Association at meetings of the constituent associations, and give a full report of their doings, encouraging them in their work and helping to secure new organizations. He shall do everything possible to carry out the aims of the National Shoe Retailers' Association as set forth in the purposes of the Association, but at all times under the supervision of the President and Secretary-Treasurer.

ARTICLE XI.

FUNCTIONS AND DUTIES OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

SECTION 1. The Board of Directors shall have full charge and management of the affairs of the Association.

SEC. 2. The regular annual meeting of the Board of Directors shall take place within one (1) week preceding the annual meeting of the Association.

SEC. 3. Special meetings of the Board of Directors may, by due notice, be called at any time or place by the President or by written request of five (5) members of the Advisory Board.

SEC. 4. Nine (9) Directors with the President shall constitute a quorum.

SEC. 5. Notice of meetings of the Directors must be sent to each member by the Secretary at least five (5) days prior to said meeting, but any member may in writing waive notice.

SEC. 6. Railroad fares and expenses of members of the Board of Directors in attending Board meetings, except at annual meetings, may be paid by the Association.

ARTICLE XII.

REPRESENTATION.

SECTION 1. Each affiliated association shall be entitled to delegates at the annual meeting of the Association as follows:

(a) Each affiliated association shall be entitled to one voting delegate and one alternate to all conventions of the Association for each fifty (50) members or fraction thereof, and in addition, one (1) delegate at large.

SEC. 2. The Officers of the Association, members of the Board of Directors, Advisory Board, and the Chairman of Standing Committees present at the annual meeting, shall be entitled to one vote each. It is understood, however, that in case any one of the Officers just mentioned is also an accredited delegate from an affiliated association he shall be entitled to one vote only, and that as such delegate. No delegate shall be entitled to more than one vote. Each delegate so appointed, or in his absence his alternate, shall have one vote on all matters of the Convention.

SEC. 3. Any Executive Officer, past or present, of this Association, who has served the Association with dignity and honor, shall retain an individual vote in the conventions of the Association as long as he remains in good standing.

SEC. 4. Proxies shall not be recognized.

ARTICLE XIII.

DUES.

SECTION 1. Dues of each member shall be as designated in the Membership Clause.

SEC. 2. The Treasurer of each affiliated association shall remit to the Treasurer of the National Association the dues for the total membership of his association annually in advance.

SEC. 3. Any association failing to pay the amount due when the same has become payable may, after thirty (30) days' notice, be suspended from all rights and privileges of the Association, and after such suspension may be expelled, if the Board of Directors deem best. Upon payment of the dues, the delinquent Association may be reinstated at the discretion of the Board of Directors.

SEC. 4. The dues of the sustaining members may be at the option of the applicant.

ARTICLE XIV.

ANNUAL MEETINGS.

SECTION 1. During each annual meeting of the Association the place of the next annual meeting shall be determined and announced by the Board of Directors.

SEC. 2. All members attending the Convention and all visitors at the annual meeting (with such exceptions as the Board of Directors may authorize) shall be registered at the office provided for that purpose. A registration fee to cover cost of badge, tickets of admission, etc., shall be collected by the Secretary-Treasurer.

ARTICLE XV.

CREDENTIALS.

No delegate from any association shall be entitled to vote at the annual meeting without first being registered and having his credentials approved by the Committee on Credentials.

ARTICLE XVI.

All motions or resolutions to prevail must receive the majority of the votes cast, unless otherwise provided for.

ARTICLE XVII.

SEAL AND EMBLEM.

SECTION 1. The Seal and Emblem of the Association shall consist of the design appearing on the cover of this Constitution and shall be used only under the specific direction and authority of the Board of Directors.

SEC. 2. A card and certificate of membership may be issued to each member in suitable form under the authority and direction of the Board of Directors.

ARTICLE XVIII.

PARLIAMENTARY AUTHORITY.

Roberts' Rules of Order shall be the parliamentary authority for all matters of procedure not specially covered by the Constitution of

this Association or by special rules of procedure adopted by the Association.

ARTICLE XIX.

AMENDMENTS.

SECTION 1. Amendments to the Constitution may be made from time to time by a two-thirds vote of the delegates present and voting at any session of the annual meeting, provided that thirty (30) days' prior notice in writing shall be given to the members.

SEC. 2. By-Laws not inconsistent with the Constitution may be adopted by the delegates at any annual meeting of the Association, and such By-Laws shall be of equal force with the Constitution; they may be amended in the same manner as the Constitution.

ARTICLE XX.

STANDING COMMITTEES.

The Standing Committees of this Association shall be as follows: Executive Committee, consisting of three (3) members to be appointed by the President from the Board of Directors.

Vigilance Committee.

Conference Committee.

Finance Committee.

Legislative Committee.

Publicity Committee.

Membership Committee.

Freight and Transportation Committee.

Insurance Committee.

Arbitration Committee.

All these committees shall be appointed by the President for a term of one year.

BY-LAWS.

Order of Business of the Convention.

1. Calling to Order by the President.

2. Appointment of Committee on Credentials.

3. Recess.

4. Report of Committee on Credentials.

5. Roll Call.

6. Reading of Minutes of Last Convention.

7. Reports of Officers.

8. Appointment of Committee on Resolutions and Committee on Nominations.

9. Report of Standing Committees.

10. Report of Special Committees.

11. Unfinished Business.

12. New Business.

13. Election of Directors.

14. Adjournment.

III. PARLIAMENTARY LAW.

In order to instruct the "layman" in the rules of convention, organization meetings, and Parliamentary Law, I will outline the general rules of most importance and method of organization adopted at all meetings of the New England Retail Shoe Merchants' Association, which can be applied to all merchants' organizations.

ORGANIZATION RULES AND ORDER OF BUSINESS IN FORMING RETAIL MERCHANTS' ASSOCIATIONS.

The shoe retailers of the State or city to be organized, having assembled at a given time, one of the men present states, "I move that Mr. _____ be appointed Temporary Chairman." The motion being "seconded," he must be elected by majority vote. The mover calls for a vote as follows: "Those in favor say 'aye,' and those opposed, 'no.'"

The elected Chairman calls for nominations from the floor for temporary secretary. Mr. _____ being proposed, a motion is made and seconded for his election. The meeting is then opened by the Chair for discussion, among the men present, of the purposes and objects of the meeting and advisability of forming an association. Having heard from the various men present, the Chair calls for a motion (or "entertains a motion") that a "State" or "City" Association of shoe retailers be organized. The motion is made and seconded by another, put to vote, and passed if a majority vote "Yes." All records of motions and resolutions are recorded on paper or in a book by the temporary secretary.

The organization having been formed, a motion is made to elect all members present, who desire to join, as "charter members," leaving the election open until the next meeting, to admit any new members as charter members.

A motion is then made and seconded to select a name for the Association. (Retail Shoe Merchants' Association was the title selected in all New England State and city associations.)

A motion is then made for election of permanent officers for the ensuing year. A committee of three, the first man selected being Chairman, is appointed by the Chair to retire from the room and bring back a list of names for following officers: President; 1st Vice-President; 2nd Vice-President; Secretary; Treasurer; Executive Committee, composed of officers and four other members.

The Chairman of the Committee reads the names and makes a motion that the Secretary cast one ballot for the election of each name read. The Chair puts the motion, which is seconded and passed in the usual way: "Those in favor say 'aye'; contrary minds, 'no.' It is a vote and so ordered."

The newly-elected President then takes the Chair and opens the meeting for business.

(1) Motion is made for annual dues (\$3.00 to \$5.00 a year in New England State Associations. (Evening meeting dinner not included in dues.)

(2) Motion made for date and place of meetings. (2nd Tuesday of third month; headquarters, leading city.)

(3) Motion made for date of next meeting, usually 30 days.

President appoints a membership committee of five members to begin campaign at once for new members. President appoints committee of three to draw up set of By-Laws (see printed By-Laws) to be presented and adopted at the next meeting.

Honorary members (representatives of the trade papers) are elected by motion.

New business can be brought up by any members present and special committees be appointed by the chair to handle subjects and present reports at the next meeting.

If there is no further business before the meeting, a motion is made to adjourn.

Parliamentary Practice in Cushing's Manual outlines a working code for societies. A few of the general principles will be given.

Parliamentary practice in America is the outgrowth of free institutions, that the will of the majority shall prevail by vote.

When three or more persons organize as an assembly by choosing a chairman as a matter of course, they are subjected to a general mode of procedure, known as parliamentary law, which it is the duty of the Chairman to enforce and the right of any member to demand.

The assembly may regulate its own proceedings by adopting any special rules which it deems advisable.

Parliamentary law is not a written code, but represents the practice by organizations which are considered of the highest standing. In England the House of Commons originated parliamentary law. In America the English usage was adopted during Colonial days, but it has been modified from time to time until a new code has come into existence, through the practice of Congress and the House of Representatives, which without question represents the highest interpretation of parliamentary procedure in America.

ORGANIZATION.

The method of electing a temporary chairman, already explained, will apply to all such meetings and temporary gatherings. If known there is any serious question about the chairman desired, election may be by ballot, which allows each member to keep secret his vote.

The secretary may be elected by voice, vote, or ballot, after the chairman has been elected. Sometimes a secretary is appointed by the chair, but this can be done only with the consent of the assembly.

Ordinarily a member should not decline a nomination, especially when the assembly is endeavoring to organize and a question of modesty is not in good taste or courteous to members present. When nominations are given by committees, if a separate vote on each name is called for, it should be ordered by the chairman without question.

CREDENTIALS.

In many societies it is not usual to question who are entitled to membership, but in representative bodies it is necessary before proceeding to business to ascertain the membership, in order that no person may participate who is not entitled to do so. The proper time is after the temporary and before the permanent organization is formed, and the usual method is by appointment of a committee to receive and report upon credentials from the members present. In the rules of the Massachusetts Association all members sign name slips at meetings.

QUORUM.

This expression means the number of members required to be present for transaction of business, the vote of whom makes final all motions and resolutions.

It is proper for any association in its By-Laws and Constitution to adopt rules as to the number which constitutes a quorum, according to the membership of the organization. In the case of a State association, with many members at a distance who cannot attend meetings, a majority attendance would be rare, and the By-Laws can provide that 15 or 25 members, or any number less than a majority, shall constitute a quorum. For the transaction of business the actual presence of a quorum is requisite, otherwise no business can be regularly entered upon, but the presiding officer may call the meeting to order for the purpose of definitely adjourning after putting on record the fact that no quorum is present, or to arrange for another meeting in place of the one which could not transact business.

OFFICERS AND DUTIES.

Chairman or President.

In all cases presiding officer should be addressed by title, not name, as follows: "Mr. Chairman." "Mr. President." His duties are:

1. To open the meeting at the appointed time by taking the chair and calling members to order.
2. To announce business before assembly, in order given in By-Laws.
3. To receive all proper messages and announce them to the assembly.
4. To introduce all speakers and guests, unless a "toastmaster" has been appointed.

5. To recognize members who address the chair, calling them by name, and to assign the floor to person entitled to it.

6. To receive all proper motions and resolutions presented and offer them to the assembly for discussion and action.

7. To put to vote all questions which are regularly moved in the course of the meeting.

8. To restrain the members within the proper limits of debate as prescribed by usage and rules of decorum, and at all times to maintain order and enforce the rules, special and general.

9. To decide by his rulings, subject to appeal to the assembly, all questions of order which arise, explaining same when necessary.

10. To name a member to act temporarily in his place when he is obliged to vacate the chair, and to appoint other members to fill vacancies when necessary according to rules.

11. To name members who are to serve on committees (first man named is chairman), when directed to do so by vote of the assembly.

12. To endorse all checks paid by Treasurer, when so provided by the By-Laws.

13. To call upon various members for expression of opinion on any debate.

14. To "entertain" a motion if desired, but not state a motion. To approve reading of report by secretary of previous meeting, as follows: "If there are no errors or corrections, I declare same approved and accepted."

15. Any errors noted by members may be changed on record, by approval of chair.

16. It is customary for chairman to stand when addressing the assembly or when putting a motion, but he should not ordinarily take part in debate. He may, however, state reasons in case of appeal from his decisions on a point of order, also state reason for or against motions made or explain rules of procedure. He has the right to vote, but should not do so except when voting is by ballot, unless his vote would change result.

The power of a chairman is very great, but without the support of the majority he is helpless. When an unscrupulous member of the minority, by abuse of privilege, thwarts the majority, the chairman should rule out of order all dilatory motions.

Vice-President.

In the absence of the president, the vice-president presides at meetings. When the president temporarily vacates the chair and the vice-president is not present, the secretary presides until a chairman is appointed.

Secretary.

1. The secretary's duties are to read reports of last meeting as well as all letters and correspondence, and to make a true and accu-

rate record in a book of all transactions at each meeting, motions made and passed, as well as resolutions adopted, but not copies of speeches or addresses, nor to enter subjects merely proposed. The minutes should record acts only. Criticism by a member should never be included in records.

2. To repeat all motions made before being voted upon, when requested by a member or the chair. All documents, reports of committees, etc., should not be entered upon records unless ordered by vote of assembly, but resolution changes in By-Laws and votes should be entered complete.

3. To keep a complete and accurate list of all members, that he may call the rolls when ordered by the president.

4. To answer all correspondence of the Association and to mail notices of all meetings in advance of date. To notify all committees appointed at meetings or by the president, giving duties. To have charge of all printing, stationery, and small petty bills of the Association.

Treasurer.

His duties are to collect and disburse all funds of the Association and to deposit all moneys in the bank, sending out annual bills and collecting same.

Executive Committee.

The duties are outlined in By-Laws. They shall have general management of the Association in matters of importance affecting policies or plans for the work of the Association. All votes and motions of the executive committee should be recorded by the secretary and read at all meetings, to be ratified by vote of the Association.

RIGHT TO FLOOR.

Only members can address the assembly, except by invitation or permission of the assembly itself.

The member rises and addresses the presiding officer as "Mr. Chairman" or "Mr. President," whereupon the chairman recognizes the speaker by speaking his name, as "Mr. Brown," or "Mr. Brown has the floor." The member then proceeds.

If two or more members rise and address the chair at the same time, the chair has the right to assign the floor to the member he considers has the first right.

A question of order may be raised whenever the rules of procedure are in any way violated, and any member may interrupt by rising and addressing the chair, as, "I rise to a point of order." The member talking must take his seat and the member raising the question then states it and the chairman decides whether the order is valid. If he rules it is "well taken," the member interrupted cannot proceed further except by consent of the assembly.

PRESENTING A MOTION.

Any matter of business or question for consideration or debate can be brought before the assembly by any member in the form of a "motion" or "resolution." Having taken the floor as described, he "moves." For example: "I move that a committee of three be appointed by the chair to draft a constitution and that they report at the next meeting." Where the motion has been "seconded" by another member and stated by the Chair, it becomes a question before the assembly for discussion and action and when finally put to vote by the chair, it becomes, if a majority vote concur, the act, order, or resolution of the assembly.

All motions must be seconded by another member, who states, "I second the motion." The Chairman may ask if the motion is seconded after it has been made, before putting it to vote.

A motion may be withdrawn by the mover before it has been stated from the Chair.

A motion may be laid on the table when the assembly desires to lay aside for a time any proposition before it not of sufficient importance for immediate action. The form of motion is, "That the question be laid on the table."

AMENDMENTS TO MOTIONS.

A member may wish to add or change a pending motion by amendment, which takes procedure of the main question. The chair may call for vote on the amendment first, which will be adopted or rejected, and the question then recurs upon the main question, which may then be put to vote or the chair may ask the member who first made the motion if he accepts the amendment of the other member. If so, the vote is made, only on the original question with the amendment included.

In case a resolution has been moved and an amendment moved, then an amendment to the amendment, the previous question is ordered at this point. First the amendment to the amendment is put to vote, then the amendment to the main question, and finally the main question itself. Until the last vote is taken, the previous question is not exhausted and no debate is in order. All amendments to debatable questions are themselves debatable, but while they are pending debate on the main question is allowable only in so far as it is necessarily involved in the question of amendment.

APPEAL FROM CHAIR.

Any member who is seriously dissatisfied with the ruling of the Chairman upon any question may "appeal from the question of the chair," which must be made immediately after the decision is rendered. The question is then stated by the Chairman in these words: "Shall the decision of the Chair stand as the decision of the assem-

bly?" If a majority vote "yes," the Chair is sustained in his ruling; if "no," his decision is overruled.

DECORUM IN DEBATE.

The use of the privileges of debate for purpose of insult is absolutely forbidden. If a speaker is plainly offending in any way it is the duty of the presiding officer at once to call him to order and it is the right of any member to interrupt the speech, saying, "Mr. Chairman, I call the gentleman to order."



